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By

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Table of Contents

1	Introduction	1
2	Materials and Methods	2
3	Results and Discussion	3
4	Conclusions	4
5	Acknowledgments	5
6	References	6
7	Appendix	7
8	Index	8
9	Summary	9
10	References	10
11	Appendix	11
12	Index	12
13	Summary	13
14	References	14
15	Appendix	15
16	Index	16
17	Summary	17
18	References	18
19	Appendix	19
20	Index	20
21	Summary	21
22	References	22
23	Appendix	23
24	Index	24
25	Summary	25
26	References	26
27	Appendix	27
28	Index	28
29	Summary	29
30	References	30
31	Appendix	31
32	Index	32
33	Summary	33
34	References	34
35	Appendix	35
36	Index	36
37	Summary	37
38	References	38
39	Appendix	39
40	Index	40
41	Summary	41
42	References	42
43	Appendix	43
44	Index	44
45	Summary	45
46	References	46
47	Appendix	47
48	Index	48
49	Summary	49
50	References	50
51	Appendix	51
52	Index	52
53	Summary	53
54	References	54
55	Appendix	55
56	Index	56
57	Summary	57
58	References	58
59	Appendix	59
60	Index	60
61	Summary	61
62	References	62
63	Appendix	63
64	Index	64
65	Summary	65
66	References	66
67	Appendix	67
68	Index	68
69	Summary	69
70	References	70
71	Appendix	71
72	Index	72
73	Summary	73
74	References	74
75	Appendix	75
76	Index	76
77	Summary	77
78	References	78
79	Appendix	79
80	Index	80
81	Summary	81
82	References	82
83	Appendix	83
84	Index	84
85	Summary	85
86	References	86
87	Appendix	87
88	Index	88
89	Summary	89
90	References	90
91	Appendix	91
92	Index	92
93	Summary	93
94	References	94
95	Appendix	95
96	Index	96
97	Summary	97
98	References	98
99	Appendix	99
100	Index	100

1.1. PROPOSED SYSTEM LEAF COUNT MODEL.....	99
Model Development.....	99
Assessment Analysis.....	100
Response to Drought.....	110
Discussion.....	110
1.2. CONCLUSION.....	114
APPENDIX A. VERIFICATION AND EXPERIMENTAL VALIDATION OF WALL FLOOD TRENCH MANAGEMENT IN NARR EXPERIMENTAL.....	141
APPENDIX B. PROPOSED LEAF COUNT MODEL.....	159
APPENDIX C. SYSTEM LEAF COUNT MODEL.....	161
REFERENCES.....	164
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT.....	170

Abstract of Investigation Presented to the Graduate School
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PHYSIOLOGICAL RESPONSES TO DROUGHT
IN THE LARVAE OF THE SILK MOOTH

by

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December 1960

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Experiments were conducted to characterize the impact of drought on the growth and development of field grown soybeans (*Glycine max*, L.) Merrill larvae and to assess the impact of drought on silk division and silk elongation. A hypothesis was proposed which stated that the response of larvae to drought stress is dictated by the developmental stage of the larva at the time of drought. Leaf cell physiological data were collected by drought early in the development of a leaf three days later. Final leaf areas were also related to the timing of drought. These results suggested that responses to drought were mediated by differential restrictions of silk division and elongation during a particular leaf development stage.

An equation which describes the utilization of individual silk cells was used as a model to characterize the separation of leaf cells. The terms potential, leaf cell yield, duration and the leaf relative growth rates were measured in the larvae from field-grown, irrigated

uninterrupted expansion. The will extensibility was estimated from these values. Leaf length potentials were lower in the damaged than in the well-retained leaves. The will factor threshold was linearly related to the normalized leaf area. Sprouts increased leaf will yield thresholds by 0.2 kg m^{-2} for leaves which had just emerged from the meristem. Leaf relative growth rates were insensitive to changes in the level of retention and were a function of the normalized leaf area for leaves having completed more than 50% of leaf growth. The leaf will extensibility was estimated at between 0.07 and 0.40 $\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for well-retained and damaged leaves.

A model of leaf growth was constructed which incorporated the will extension equation and a unique functional relationship between will expansion and duration termed the maximum-value dynamic function. This function requires that will attain a time-dependent value before proceeding to a dynamic regime. The model successfully portrayed leaf growth during will retention-dormancy and produced the values and extent of drought induced growth reductions. A parameter analysis suggested that only increases in the leaf target were capable of increasing leaf area.

CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

The growth of leaves occupied the spotlight in horticulture today for almost 20 years with generalizations such as ALLSOP (1960) and more recently by KATSEVSKAYA (1971). During that time, the basic cellular processes of division and differentiation were thoroughly studied and described. Since that time, the interest in leaves has had more to do with their function as photosynthetic organs than with their rates of formation or development. With the increased need for more efficient crop production, brought on by declining resources and increasing demand, there has been renewed emphasis on the growth of leaves. In part this is due to the misconception that the leaf is the primary structure responsible for increasing total energy use through utilization by man.

The rate of its entire canopy of leaves per unit ground surface area, otherwise known as the leaf area index, has come to occupy a central role in crop crop growth and yield predicting models (Gamon, 1971; Curry et al., 1973). More recently, the approach of ELMER and SPAIN (1968) to yield formation, and the fact that leaf area index affects the direction of water selection intervention by a crop. This in turn is related to the amount of biomass produced by an efficiency of resource utilization. Leaf yield may then be estimated by multiplying the biomass by the harvest index.

Many attempts have been made to use water potential and/or stomatal conductance to estimate yield. However, no single approach to yield determination includes the calculation of biomass through measured transpiration of crop photosynthesis and respiration. Both types of modeling approaches are subject to inaccuracies due to their inability to portray leaf area formation during drought. Another approach to leaf production has the capacity to realistically portray leaf growth during seasonal periods of stress.

Thus, there is an important deficiency in current methods for determining yield formation in crops during drought due to the inability to portray leaf growth. This is a major problem since much of what we produce world-wide is subjected to drought. Boyer (1981) estimated that drought is the single-most pervasive cause of reduced yields worldwide. Realization of yield loss alone cannot meet the challenge.

Another approach employed to portray leaf growth in a realistic environment was limited by the use of species and stage-of-growth specific coefficients to relate stomatal potential to leaf blade expansion (Bar and Jarvis, 1981). An excellent work on the growth of Australian *Eucalyptus regalis* leaves by Boyer et al. (1978) provided insight into the factors controlling cell division. However, they focused on empirical descriptions of leaf expansion since they did not measure, in a mechanistic sense, the role of cell expansion in the growth of leaves.

The main of leaf growth to be affecting individual components which are required for any type of flowering under a variety of conditions (James et al., 1970). Equally important is a realization of what any model may accomplish. The model of leaf growth developed in this work considers growth reduction due to water in relation drought. Growth during severe drought may last several concepts of growth beyond their sustenance or physiological malfunctions. A simple analogy may be drawn in the spring constant in Hooke's law. This constant simply defines the relationship between the applied force and displacement. Under extreme conditions, this constant fails to relate the force and the displacement. We must not expect all cause-effect relationships to hold under every conceivable condition.

There are three broad parts to this work:

- 1) The impact of drought on leaf growth.
- 2) Interpretation of responses to drought by analysis of leaf growth into basic components.
- 3) and synthesis of these processes into a model.

The Impact of Drought on Leaf Growth

Three major stages of leaf development may be distinguished according to their response to drought: initiation, early growth (leaves less than 50% expanded) and late growth (leaves greater than 50% but less than fully expanded). The latter two stages were separable through differing wilting processes. During early growth stages leaves have a high content of stretching cells while the growth of more mature leaves is probably dominated by cell expansion.

Relationship between the response to drought at roots at 10000 depth provides clues as to the effect of drought on the underlying mechanisms of leaf growth

In Chapter II, the effect of drought on leaf expansion is examined. Pandey et al. (1981) indicated that deep soil leaf development is delayed and decreased root, suppress leaf expansion, as quantified by the minimum leaf area was a very sensitive indicator of drought. Also this aspect of leaf growth is sensitive to drought, leaf area was shown in this study to be more responsive. Chapter III examines the effects of drought on root development as well as provides data on cell number in both young and more mature leaves. Although Pandey et al. (1980) investigated the long term effects of drought on leaf area and cell number in quercus oak seedlings Quercus agrifolia, an experimental data exist for short changes in leaf growth response. Results from these two chapters suggest that the impact of drought could be predicted from knowledge of the relative importance of cell division and cell expansion at a given phase of leaf growth.

Relation of Leaf Growth with the Temperature

A rationalized approach was used in Chapter IV to interpret the characteristic response to drought observed in data from Chapters II and III. Because leaf growth involves cell division and expansion, the understanding of how drought influences these processes would help decipher how leaves grow during drought. In Chapter IV, an equation describing a hypothetical relationship of cell walls, originally proposed

by Equation (11.1), assumed to be the secondary and sufficient description of well expansion as a plant grows:

$$\frac{dW(t)}{dt} = \mu(P - T) \quad (11.1)$$

Equation (11.1) represents the empirical form of the well well expansion equation since W is the well volume, t is time (d), μ is the well expansibility ($\text{cm}^3 \text{ h}^{-1} \text{ g}^{-1}$), P is the well target potential (MPa) and T is the well prior threshold (MPa). The term, expansibility, refers to the increasing of structural bonds holding cell wall materials together; it may be thought of as a measure of the structural integrity of a substance. Much early research was concerned with the relationship of tissue resistance controlled the growth of single celled Microbes (Chen et al., 1971); more recently, Cooper (1980) measured tissue resistance with a pressure probe on pea (Pisum sativum) stem cells. While equation (11.1) has derived as a model to investigate cell growth, there have been few field studies which have evaluated all of its terms simultaneously, and there has been much work conducted on the influence of drought on each of the terms. In the only direct measurement of eq. (11.1) under field conditions, Benda (1971) measured leaf target potentials and growth rates in the leaves of well-watered soybeans (Glycine max L.-Mill.) but specifically did not consider the well expansibility. Van Belknap and Chalmers (1981) also used eq. (11.1) to assess factors responsible for controlling the growth of peas (Pisum sativum) leaves grown in a controlled environment. However, they too never evaluated well expansibility nor investigated the consequences of drought on each term in eq. (11.1).

Experiments were conducted to evaluate cell size (Table 1). The most consistent response in leaves which were either harvested regularly or disrupted back-grown plants, after the apical meristemally developed the single cell expansion, submergence was able to supply the equation to a community of cells in a leaf. These tests in this experiment were evaluated the leaf length potential, the cell yield threshold and the leaf relative growth rates, while the cell submergence was evaluated from the other tests.

The last significant step was to develop a statistically mechanistic approach to the division of cells. Unfortunately, the theoretical basis of cell division has not progressed as far as it has for cell expansion. Only studies of leaf growth were being concerned with the relationship of cell division and cell expansion processes (McPherson, 1964). Considerable effort (Bain, 1970 and 1974) was spent on various empirical explanations to account for cell production with time. Wilson (1961) conducted a study of the influence of light on cell production in terms of number and Willenborg (1961) also conducted a study on number to determine the influence of temperature on cell division. Neither of these studies nor any of the other studies on cell division, resulted in concepts which could describe the division of cells in a mechanistic way.

Without describing in pure mathematics, a functional representation was used in conjunction with cell division. This representation simply states that cells must expand before they divide. This allowed the evaluation of cell division in terms of number which could be

minimal. The primary finding further confirms the observation that cells receive signals.

In Chapter VI, the equations (Eq. 27) describing cell division were finally assigned to a simple computer model with input conditions derived from data collected and presented in earlier chapters. This model is unique as several important aspects. First, it is a mathematical model to which it gives the flexibility, and secondly, the concept that cell division provides an important phase is integral to the operation of the model. After verification of the model with simulations for the normal case of leaf area expansion as well as cell population increase with time, a parameter analysis and simulations of drought on leaf growth and development were performed.

In the last chapter, conclusions are summarized and a brief account is given to the multitude of questions that generally arise following any scientific inquiry.

CHAPTER 11 EFFECTS OF LEAF DROUGHT ON GROWTH

Leaf senescence is a process which may be characterized by the appearance of a leaf from the meristematic region followed by expansion of the leaf blade. Senescent leaf senescence from the meristematic region may contribute to the photosynthetic capacity of the plant, so that an examination of the rate of leaf senescence is a logical starting point for an examination of the influence of drought on meristematic leaf growth and development. Nelson et al. (1975) literature began with a study of leaf senescence which served to identify a senescence comparable plant development process which could be utilized to quantify crop growth models. This chapter is concerned with the specific purpose of quantifying the relationship between the rate of leaf senescence due to drought, as well as identifying which process, leaf senescence or expansion, is most sensitive. Furthermore, under the effect of severe drought, senescence is a component of crop growth processes, which in moderate length cyclical droughts were exposed to study leaf growth processes.

The rate of appearance of leaves from the meristematic region has been extensively studied for a number of crops including soybean (Williams and Hill 1971) (Nelson et al., 1975) (Nelson et al., 1977) (Nelson and Jones, 1978) (Nelson et al., 1980) and wheat (Williams and Hill 1971, Hill 1971) (Nelson et al., 1975) (Nelson and Collingham, 1981). During optimal growth conditions, the rate of leaf appearance is

approximately 1000 hours (morning) and 1000 hours (afternoon) in both systems systems. During periods of drought, relative water content decreased 10% (the interval between appearance of leaves (Baker et al., 1984). In contrast, the plantations, a measure of the time between the appearance of successive leaves, increased in droughted, field-grown systems (Bendall et al., 1981). In the latest study, it was concluded that the change in the photosynthetic index was very sensitive to environmental conditions. Leaf senescence in continuous green willow (*Salix glauca* L.) also showed a reduction in the leaf appearance rate due to drought stress (Baker and Palmer, 1976; Ferguson et al., 1981).

The objectives of this research are to determine the influence of short to moderate length cyclical drought on the rate of leaf appearance and to determine the relative sensitivity of leaf blade expansion and leaf appearance rate to drought. Field-grown systems were established every 2 or 4 days or were well-watered throughout every 2 days. Leaf areas were measured daily on the youngest 2 leaves. For each irrigation cycle, the photosynthetic index was a good indicator of whole plant leaf area development. The leaf expansion rate as quantified by the photosynthetic index was shown to be less sensitive than leaf area expansion to cyclical drought.

Materials and Methods

Suberect (cv. Illinois) was used as the test material in this and all subsequent experiments. Illinois belongs to Suberect Group VIII and divided up in three months of vegetative growth from June to early

April in Gainesville, FL. This infrared nondestructive technique employs laser light (10600 cm^{-1}), which facilitates measurement of leaf thickness and observation of leaf morphology from the exterior.

A field experiment was conducted at the Spring Farm located at the University of Florida in Gainesville, Florida. The soil in the test plot was an Archaic Elic and Ogerthornie, coarse, Aquic Quartzipsamment. The plot received a preplant application of 400 kg ha^{-1} of 0-20-20 (N-P₂O₅-K₂O) fertilizer. Broadleaf weeds were controlled with a preplant application of 1 g ha^{-1} of Trifluralin (High, alpha, alpha trifluoro 2, 4-dicloro 6) or Glyoxylic-bisulphate. A preemergent application of 4 g ha^{-1} of Alachlor (2-chloro-2', 4'-dichloro 1, 1-dimethyl-2-methyl-2-propenyl) was used to control grasses. Another 15,0 kg ha⁻¹ of 1,1-dichloro-2,2-bis(4-chlorophenyl) and another 15-kg ha⁻¹ of 1,1-dichloro-2,2-bis(4-chlorophenyl) were applied as required to control volunteer cottonseed and other weed pests.

On 28 March 1981, an 1800 m² field plot was sown at a rate of 40 seeds per meter in 8,0 x 8 m rows with a north-south orientation. This plot was divided into three 1800 m subplots of differing irrigation treatments. Subplots were irrigated every second, fourth or eighth day. The subplots irrigated every eighth day received 28 mm of water while those which were irrigated every second and fourth day received 80 mm of water per irrigation. Irrigation was provided by a 4 m pump attached to a submain from which seven or ten trunks spaced lengthwise in the center of the column plot. This system was able to apply a uniform distribution of water over each subplot. Irrigation

measurements began 70 days after emergence of seedlings and continued to 110 days. On 110 day, leaves were forced to wilt and 12 h after wilting resumed but leaves were measured only once the following day.

Leaf Area

The smallest leaf is called the cotyledon consisting of a single terminal and two lateral leaflets. Terminal leaflet, leaflets and petioles were measured with a calliper gauge on the top most five leaves of two plants in each treatment. Measurements commenced when the SWS of 44.5 leaf had just emerged from the soil. After the 4th leaf had started to emerge, the leaflets and petioles of the cotyledon leaflets from leaves occupying the lower primary leaflet through fourth position were also measured. To relate terminal leaflet dimensions to individual leaf area, a separate group of leaves was harvested and the leaflets and petioles of the cotyledon leaflets were measured along with the areas of the entire blade. Leaf area was measured with a leaf area meter (Model LS-3000, Lambda Instruments, Lincoln, Nebraska).

Distichion Index

The Distichion Index (DI), is a count of the number of leaves on a plant, leaves which are longer than a specified length comprise the plant's leaves by one, whereas leaves which are smaller than the specified length are accepted a fractional amount of growth. The Distichion Index was used to quantify the impact of drought on the rate of appearance of leaves from the meristem.

The phytosphere index (eqs. 2,3), as developed by Wentworth and \bar{C}_m (1980), was determined for each treatment throughout the 117-day experimental period.

$$PI = \pi + \frac{[\ln (L_{\text{veg}}/L_0)] - [\ln (R^*)]}{20} \quad (2.1)$$

is reference length of the standard leaflet which defines the leaflet length as asymptote (from the equation is denoted by R^* - a reference length of 30 cm was used). The π -0 level is the logarithm leaflet standard leaflet length (L_{veg}) is greater than or equal to R^* . The number of leaves below the π -0 level is denoted by n . The probability (with 1%) is defined as the logarithm of the value of the length of the n th largest leaves.

$$PI = \ln (L_{\text{veg}}/R_0) \quad (2.2)$$

The PI for all treatments was not equal to the daily value for the well-watered treatment (irrigated every 2 days) instead of a constant average. This could be either the effect of environmental variability or the delayed portion of the phytosphere index which was not correlated with the irrigation treatments. This particular fluctuation of the phytosphere index (eqs. 2-3) the employed mean (2) directly compares the growth of the π -0 level with an asymptotic size. Poulton et al. (1981) have shown that this fluctuation of the phytosphere index is very frequent in the irrigation of drought and to recovery after its cessation.

Results and Discussion

Leaflet Dimensions and Leaf Area

Correlations between terminal leaflet dimensions and leaf area were made with 70 facultative irrigated and droughted *P. juliflora* treatments of numerous field samples. No correlated differences were found for dry treatments when droughted leaves were compared with well watered leaves. In both sets of data were grouped together, when the products of terminal leaflet length (L_t , cm) and width (W_t , cm) were regressed against the entire leaf area (A , cm²), the following equation resulted:

$$A = 1.094L_tW_t - 11.87L_tW_t \quad (2.1)$$

In a study of 12 species of *Acacia*, Wynne and Bailey (1971) found a similar relationship between leaf area and dimensions of the terminal leaflet:

Photosynthesis

The photosynthesis values for treatments irrigated every 2, 4 or 8 days are presented in Table 2.1. *Prosopis juliflora* were different in most dates except the three irrigation treatments. Throughout most of the experimental period, plants irrigated every 2nd day had the highest photosynthesis values while those irrigated every 8th day had photosynthesis values least as equal to those irrigated every 4 days. A heavy infestation of yellow acaciae (*Pyrausta nubilalis*) in the plot irrigated every 4th day may have been responsible reduced growth. Over the entire experimental period, photosynthesis values were

approximately 8 and 45 hours on 1000 and 2000, respectively, together relative to those irrigated every 100 days, respectively. Bure and Dulac (1984) observed greater reduction (50% by the 10th day) of leaf initiation in soybean plants subjected to a 10 day drought under controlled environment conditions. Under field conditions, Washland (1984) observed approximately 40% reduction in the appearance of leaves as measured by the plant:height index in soybeans droughted for 10 days. Due to the short, previous history of drought used in the present study (5 day maximum), relating to Washland's work with field-grown soybean, leaf production rates were not as markedly reduced.

Leaf Area

Average leaf areas per plant are presented in Table 1.2 for plants irrigated every 1, 4 or 8 days. Generally, leaf areas were significantly different between plants irrigated at 4 and 8 day intervals compared to those irrigated every second day. Leaf area development was slightly retarded in plants irrigated every 8 days primarily due to the presence of yellow sublethal lesions. However, by the final week of the experimental period, plants irrigated every 8 days did achieve higher leaf areas than those irrigated every 4 days.

Plant leaf area plotted against plant:height index for each treatment, for values in Fig. 1.1. Linear regression analysis of leaf area against the plant:height index resulted in the following equations for treatments irrigated every 1 day (Eq. 1.41), 4 days (Eq. 1.42) or 8 days (Eq. 1.43)

$$1/2 \text{ NPP/L} = 0.0001 \text{ (r}^2=0.89) \quad (10a)$$

$$1/2 \text{ NPP/L} = 0.0001 \text{ (r}^2=0.87) \quad (10b)$$

$$1/2 \text{ NPP/L} = 0.0001 \text{ (r}^2=0.86) \quad (10c)$$

where $k = 0.000016$ (plant leaf area cm^2) and 0.0001 (photosynth. unit mg/L). The relationship between number of leaves produced and plant leaf area is similar for both well-watered plants (1-day intervals) and those irrigated every 4 or 8 days. Similarly, similar (1981) estimated these coefficients based on an allometric relationship between the photosynth. index and whole plant leaf area of well-watered, field-grown soybeans and found a linear relationship between leaf area and photosynthesis when the plant had 8 leaves.

Estimate Relationship of Leaf Senescence and Leaf Area Development in Soybean

Relative to plants irrigated every 2 days, leaf areas senesced over the entire experimental period were reduced approximately 15 and 20% in plants irrigated every 4 and 8 days, respectively (Table 3, 5). In contrast to these reductions in leaf area, the photosynth. indices of plants irrigated at 4 and 8 day intervals were approximately 1% lower than those measured on plants irrigated every 2 days. Maden et al. (1980) also found greater sensitivity to drought in leaf area development than in leaf production for field-grown soybeans. Data from Tetari et al. (1981) may also be used to indicate a greater sensitivity of leaf area expansion than leaf emergence as a *Glycine max*-soybean confederate indicator. The source of the protection to drought affected leaves while they are being unfolded has yet to be

Table 2. Leaf area per plant of *Andropogon scoparius* irrigated every 2, 4 or 8 days, 1962.

No. of days	Leaf area, cm ² /plant		
	2 days	4 days	8 days
	Leaf area, cm ² /plant ^b		
185	100a ^a	95a	99a
217	400a	39a	38a
249	738a	94a	437a
279	754a	94a	445a
323	985a	93a	438a
352	945a	91a	416a
383			79a
408	866a	79a	81a
428	2233a	80a	89a
456	2233a	80a	94a
487	2224a	80a	95a
516	2291a	408a	2233a
539	1794a	1947a	2233a
565	2584a	1405a	2233a
611	2275a	1479a	2233a
643	1528a	1385a	2233a
666	1888a	1407a	1528a
687	2275a	1459a	1407a

^aValues within a row followed by the same letter are not significantly different at the 1% level, D.C. level.

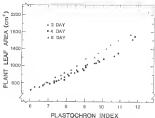


Figure 2.1 Whole plant leaf area plotted as a function of the plastochron index for plants sampled at 2, 4, or 8 day intervals, 1963.

condition, Carlson et al. (1972) has suggested that canopy temperature in the tops of droughted shrubs contributes to survival and recovery following drought.

Conclusions

During optimal growth conditions, the photosynthate index is a simple function of the average daily temperature above a base temperature. Bazzaz (1980) showed that for well-watered plants, a simple allometric relationship exists between the photosynthate index and the leaf area. This allowed a straight forward approach to obtain the whole plant leaf area based only upon the average daily temperature and known cultivar-specific growth coefficients. Results support that a linear relationship exists between the photosynthate index and leaf area for plants which have been subjected to short to moderate length optimal droughts. The leaf abscission rate, as described by the photosynthate index, was less sensitive to drought than was leaf area expansion.

Clearly there has been little success in establishing a coherent framework from which to build a unified theory of leaf growth response to drought. As a first step towards building such a framework, a basic principle in hypothesis of leaf growth can be stated as follows: response to drought is in large part dictated by the developmental stage of the leaf at the time of drought. A corollary to this hypothesis is that the underlying causes for the various responses observed at different stages are due to the differential contributions toward cell division and cell expansion. Early leaves have been shown to have a higher percentage of dividing cells than more mature leaves (Kilgus, 1964; Baskin, 1965). Depending on the relative contributions of cell division and expansion to drought, there might be a differential sensitivity of small versus large leaves to drought. To test these and other consequences of the hypothesis, experiments were performed over a three-year period on field-grown soybeans. An attempt to diagnose a drought sensitive stage of leaf age was an important test of the hypothesis. Drought sensitivity was ascribed by measuring the cell number and leaf area in fully expanded irrigated and droughted leaves when drought was initiated at different stages of leaf development.

The results confirmed that leaf developmental stage is a critical factor in determining the drought response and, in particular, the most sensitive leaf stage to soybean anthesis is the period between emergence from the soil and one month after the first true seedling (time of first leaf area for the cultivar considered). The data further support that the differential responses of various leaf ages to

drooping with density, the duration, growth rate of *C. p. affinis* and response associated with a particular stage of growth.

Methods and Results

A series of field experiments beginning in 1961 and spanning three years were conducted to evaluate the gross morphological and cellular changes in response to stress associated with drooping. All experiments were conducted at the Agronomy Farm located at the University of Florida in Gainesville, Florida. Cultural practices for all experiments were similar to those described in Chapway (1).

1961

On 12 March an 1800 m field plot was used at a rate of 40 seeds per meter in 5.0 m rows in a north-south orientation. This plot was divided into three 1800 m subplots of differing irrigation treatments. Each subplot was irrigated every second, third or eighth day. The subplot irrigated every eighth day received 40 mm of water while those which were irrigated every second and fourth day received 80 mm of water per irrigation. Irrigation was provided by a 4 inch line attached to a reel-and-frame which moved on two tracks placed longitudinally in the center of the plot. This system was able to supply a uniform distribution of water over each subplot. Two 5-day cycles were studied, the first cycle having initiated on 2 May when the first leaf had emerged on most plants and the second cycle on 12 May. Technical staffed, topsoil and water were obtained on the top and first leaves of the plants in each of the three treatments. The 113 through

The fully expanded leaves were harvested for one or more determinations. Three plants were sampled in each of the three irrigation treatments. Leaves were placed into formalin until acid alcohol fixation (FAA) (Johnson, 1941) immediately following harvest and were transferred to 70% alcohol within a month.

1962

A second experiment was conducted to follow changes in cell number during development of droughted and irrigated leaves and to identify more precisely when leaf cell numbers were reduced by drought. Due to delays in obtaining the use of a glass chimney, only well-watered leaves were sampled during their development. The field conditions were essentially the same as the 1961 experiment. Only numbers of epigeal trifoliate leaves from the 1st and 7th nodes were sampled throughout their development in well-watered plants. Due to poor germination of the winter flax small leaves like with many less than 10 cm^2 in 1962, small leaves were placed in Johnson's Fixative (Johnson, 1941) and the larger leaves were placed into a 70% solution of formalin until acid-alcohol fixation (FAA).

1963

An experiment to determine the effect of a one-day, night-day drought stress on final leaf dimensions and cell number was conducted in the 1st through the 5th leaf. Formalin fixed, incised leaves were mounted at the start of the night-day drought and again after the 5th leaf was fully expanded. The most leaf tissue at the time of

mean-square error term $\text{MSE}_{\text{error}} = 191.07$, $\text{Lp. leaf} = 42 \text{ cm}^2$, $\text{Lp. leaf} = 1.0 \text{ cm}^2$, and $\text{Lp. leaf} = 1 \text{ cm}^2$. Samples for cell numbers were obtained from fully expanded leaves and treated as outliers (1981).

Throughout May and June, a second experiment examined the relative growth rates of well-colored leaves over a 12 h interval. Terminal leaflet lengths were measured with a millimeter scale but those less than 25 mm long were measured with calipers. Leaf areas were also expressed in terms of a normalized leaf area. These were calculated by dividing the area of the leaf at the time of the final measurement by the plot averaged final leaf area at a specific node.

Leaf Area

In 1981, to relate leaflet dimensions to total individual leaf area, the lengths and widths of the terminal leaflets were measured along with the areas of the entire blades. Leaf areas were measured with a leaf area meter. The best fit was established between leaf area and terminal leaflet length and width with a linear regression analysis (see Chapter III).

To determine the speed and manner of leaf area capture obtained, a relationship was established between the growth of the terminal leaflet solely and the area of the entire leaf. In 1980, terminal leaflet lengths and leaf areas were measured on approximately 500 leaves. Regression analysis was performed on the relationship between terminal leaflet length and whole leaf area.

Cell Biology

To prepare isolated *Brassica campestris* L. cells, leafy material was obtained for 3 minutes. The (pH) of the leaflet was measured with a test strip which followed by removal of the terminal leaflet for subsequent cell culture analysis. The strips from the terminal leaflets were discarded from the leaf blade, and the leaf blade was cut with a striped disc 0.5 cm² pieces. The material was cut into 3 cm strips. To the middle and leaf blade were then added 20 ml of 0.1 M pH 7.0 buffer and 2 ml of potassium diogen (KNO₃). This mixture was placed in 50 ml flask with 3 stainless steel ball bearings and agitated to provide a gentle shaking of the tissue. The flasks were then shaken for 24 h at a rotating rate of 100 min⁻¹ at a temperature controlled water bath set to 22°C. Cells which had been separated from the bulk of tissue were discarded off and stored at 4°C until all cells had been lysed. When all of the tissue was completely macerated, cells were suspended and samples taken for quantitation in a hemacytometer.

Isolation and Purification

Isolated, Suspended, and Leaf Area

Correlations between Isolated Leaflet Dimensions and whole leaf area were made for leaflets reported morphological measurements of numerous plant species. In 1981, equation (2) was used to calculate leaf area data from the length and breadth of the terminal leaflet. Leaf area data from 1982 and 1984 were derived from a relationship

relationship between the length of the terminal leaflet (l_m) and the total leaf area (l_m^2) which are plotted in Fig. 3.3. Theoretical leaf area was estimated by the following regression equation:

$$A = -5.18 + 1.0894L^2 \quad (r^2=0.995) \quad (3.4)$$

Körner and Bailey (1976) found a similar relationship between leaf area and the length of the terminal leaflet segment. The use of either terminal leaflet length only or length and width proved to be an effective method to follow changes in the leaf area of field grown soybeans.

Development of Leaf Area Development in Soybean

Leaf areas for the 10th, 15th, 20th and 25th leaves are plotted against day of the year for the three average treatments of 1981 in Fig. 3.2 (except Fig. 3.1). The growth of straight-stemmed young leaves was delayed to a greater extent than the growth of larger leaves. By day 120, the 10th leaf had emerged in the treatment disrupted every 2nd and 4th day. After day 120, growth of the 10th leaf in the latter treatment lagged long to 15th days behind the growth of the 15th leaf in the former treatment. If one considers the point in time when the 10th leaf from plants disrupted every 4 days was originally observed to have emerged from the soil (day 126), then growth of that leaf lagged 10 days behind the growth of the 10th leaf from plants initiated every 2 days. In contrast to the lag in growth experienced by the small disrupted leaf, the growth of the 15th leaf from plants disrupted every 4 days (which had never on day 126 that were completely defoliated) from plants initiated every 2 days)

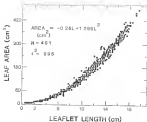


FIGURE 3.1. Bryales leaf area per leaf as a function of the length of the longest leaflet.

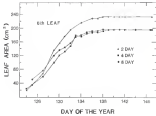


Figure 2.2 Development of the 4th leaf on plants irrigated either every 2, 4 or 8 days and low nitrogen-moist periods in 1960

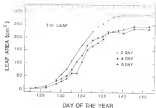


Figure 3.2 Development of the 7th leaf on plants irrigated with 0, 4, or 8 days over two experimental periods in 1960

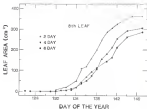


FIGURE 3-4 Development of the 8th LEAF on plants irrigated under every 3, 4 or 8 days over two sequential periods in 1982

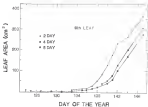


Figure 3.3 Development of the 4th leaf on plants irrigated either every 2, 4 or 8 days over two 40-day water periods in 1981.

and (average) shoot weight (SW) of the 7th leaf from plants irrigated every 3 days (Fig. 10).

In a search for the sensitivity of small leaves to drought, conducted at the CIMEX proposed use of the plantations with tops, 1.20-1.4 is the ratio of the length of the youngest leaf to the length of the next oldest leaf. If drought reduces the expansion growth of the small leaf more than that of the older one, then the ratio becomes more negative. On day 120 the SW (leaf 10) was 0.075 g and 0.045 g for a standard error for the treatment, averaged every 3rd and 5th day, respectively. The sensitivity of small leaves to drought was also noted in the work of Winkler et al. (1962) with soybeans. Furthermore, they proposed that the greatest growth reduction due to drought observed in small than in larger leaves may have been due to the greater sensitivity of small diameter than small expansion.

Observations of relative growth rates further substantiate that small leaves, and in particular, leaves which are still folded or in the process of unfolding, display growth characteristics distinctly different from larger and more mature leaves. These differences may play a role in the differential sensitivity of small and large leaves to drought stress. Data of leaf relative growth rates as a function of normalized leaf area for plants irrigated every 3rd day (1962) are presented in Fig. 11(a). There is a clear division of leaves into two groups separated by the vertical line at 0.4 normalized leaf area units. Leaves which are still in the process of unfolding lie to the left, while those which have unfolded are located to the right of

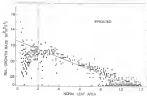


FIGURE 3-4 The relative growth rates of lettuce from plants harvested every 2nd day are plotted against their normalized leaf areas.

Figure 1.20. Small leaves have both high and low growth rates but λ modestly have low relative growth rates. Larger leaves tend to have negative growth rates along a descending line from the highest values to a point where leaves have stopped full expansion ($\lambda = 0$ on the ordinate). It appears that once leaves have unfolded, their growth may be so dominated by cell expansion processes that the influence of cell division on the overall leaf growth rate is washed out. If true, then drought stress or leaflet unfolding may play a significant role in cell population dynamics.

A second major influence of drought on growth and development of soybean leaves is the effect on the final leaf area. Suboptimal or final leaf area of leaves irrigated every 4 and 8 days is clearly smaller (Figs. 3.3 to 3.6). Final leaf area of the top through the leaf and for treatments irrigated every 4d, 8d and 16d day was presented in Table 3.1. When compared with areas of leaves from plants irrigated every 1st day, final leaf areas were reduced approximately 34% for plants irrigated every 4 days and from 45 to 50% for plants irrigated every 8 days. These reductions were caused by multiple, short duration droughts throughout the growth of the top through the leaf. Therefore, under these conditions it was not possible to describe a particularly sensitive range in the effects of drought or separate the effects of cell division versus expansion

Table 11. Mean (SD) area under the curve for the 24-hr urinary albumin excretion rate (micrograms albumin/min/1.73 m²) in days 1 to 4 in 1989.

Time from randomization (days)	n	Mean (SD)		
Baseline				
0	224	290	260	260
1	296	34.5	309	303
2	339	339	360	376
3-4 days	85	80	70	71
Follow-up				
0	93.0	93.0	93.0	93.0
1	91.7	91.7	91.7	91.7
2	91.8	91.7	91.7	91.7
3-4 days	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8

Development of Cell Number and Total Leaf Area in Soybean

To fully assess the influence of drought on the growth of soybean leaves, leaf cell populations as well as leaf area must be evaluated. Leaf cell numbers were counted during the development of well-watered soybean leaves in 1976 to provide background on the known and role of cell expansion. Leaf cell number and corresponding leaf area for a well-watered 4th and 7th leaf are presented in Fig. 3.3. Cell number failed to increase initially in an exponential manner as other studies have shown (Cline, 1976; Whitmore, 1978; Schymanski, 1979), but in the present study the infrequency of samples during early leaf growth made it difficult to determine the coefficients of exponential growth with any certainty. However, these data indicate that the exponential increase in cell number may have occurred only during the first 7 to 8 days of growth. At that time, the area of the 4th leaf is approximately 50 cm^2 and it has been unfolded for 1 day. Therefore, cell numbers increased rapidly initially until the 4th day for the 4th leaf and until cell expansion for the 7th leaf on the 12th day. Sanderson (1982) found that an exponential increase in the number of lower *Trifolium glabrum* cells continued for only five days after leaf emergence. Wilson (1981) also found an exponential *Commersonia bartramia* leaf cells increased exponentially for only four days beyond leaflet unfolding. Leaf area at that time was only a fraction of the final fully-expanded leaf area. In bean leaves (*Phaseolus vulgaris*), both Cline and (1976) found a rate of increase in cell number similar to that in Fig. 3.3. Consequently, the literature supports the

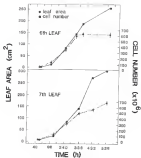


Figure 3-3 The leaf area and the number of cells during the growth of the 6th and 7th leaves (open cell) rotated plants at 1000.

comparisons) indicated a decrease in cell numbers among the control plant species only during early leaf growth.

An unexpected decline in drought caused a reduction in the final mass that a leaf attained as well as caused a reduction in the growth rate of small leaves relative to the growth of larger leaves. This suggests that drought causes a reduction in the cell division rate. Final leaf mass may be reduced by drought because if fewer cells are produced than the total volume those cells occupy will be proportionately smaller. As a partial test of these statements, in 1969, leaf cell populations were counted in well-watered *Cratogeomys* every 4th day and droughted *Cratogeomys* every 4 or 8 days. Fully-expanded leaves of leaf cell populations from fully expanded leaves are presented in Table 3-1 for the three irrigation treatments in 1969 (2, 4 or 8 day irrigation cycle). Relative to the 8-day irrigation regime, cell numbers were reduced 21, 19, 22 and 19% for plants irrigated every 4 days and 26, 24, 17 and 20% for the last through the leaves of plants irrigated every 8 days. Because leaves were droughted throughout their growth, there was no effect on the reduction of cell numbers with leaf position. To help assess the importance of final cell number (FCN) in determining the final leaf area (FLA), linear regression analyses were performed which resulted in the following relationships:

$$FLA = 0.0015 \cdot FCN^2 + 0.011 \cdot FCN + 0.0000 \quad (3.2)$$

Reductions in cell number strongly correspond to reductions observed in the mass for the leaf presented in Table 3-1, so drought may reduce leaf area in part by reducing the number of cells produced.

Table 2. Difference in the final number of cells and leaf area (cm²) between the two through 19th nodes of grass: drought for 8 days, relative to leaves with well watered plants, (198)

Leaf position	Area in 1st day without water (cm ²)	Cell number & change	Leaf area
6	104	0 mg ²	1.0 mg
7	90	0 mg	10.0 mg
8	80	0 mg	-0.0 mg
9	3	8.0 *	-11.0 *
10	0	-10.0 *	10.0 *
11	1	-10.0 *	-0.0 *
12	0	-0.0 *	0.0 *
13	0	-0.0 mg	-0.0 mg
14	0	-0.0 *	-0.0 *
15	0	-0.0 mg	-0.0 mg

* Well-watered and droughted final leaf area differ are significantly different at the 0.05/0.01 level of significance (**) or are not significant (ns)

In 1984, the effects of 7 weeks moderate drought (3 days at the 100% water and soil number of the 1983 through the 1986 level was measured and is presented in Table 3.2. The greatest relative reduction in final leaf area occurred when the leaves had recently emerged from the protection of the sheath of the drought (1983 node, 7 m²). The crop may have been able to rely on water stored in the soil profile so that the 1986 leaf area may have been slightly larger by the time the stress was perceived. Despite the relatively short time span the effects of drought influenced leaf growth, it seems as though leaves less than 10% fully expanded (based upon a total area of 446 m²) were the most influenced by drought. Suckale et al. (1981) droughted alfalfa and observed that the greatest magnitude of final leaf area reduction occurred when the stress was imposed at the time of unfolding.

To determine the effect of drought on leaf cell division, cells were counted in fully-expanded leaves in the 1984 experiment. Similarity of any particular stage of leaf development to drought would be indicated by the relative reduction in the number of cells. The percent change in the number of leaf cells in the fully-expanded leaves from droughted plants relative to those from well-watered plants are presented in Table 3.3 along with the area of the leaf at the time drought was initiated. The greatest reduction in the number of cells was in drought initiated in the earliest visible leaf to have emerged from the sheath (1983 node) at the time the drought was initiated. Reduction in the number of cells produced was insignificant for leaves which were still located within the

experimentally proven that leaf growth was not affected by the drought treatment.

In contrast to the increase in biomass brought by-leaf during leaf development (Table 1.1), changes in biomass of individual leaves did not correspond to expansion or lysis; in the absence of cell number (Table 1.1). That is, a 40% reduction in cell number did not necessarily result in a similar reduction in the leaf area. The greatest reduction in leaf area occurred for larger leaves at the initiation of the drought than it did for leaf cell number. This is consistent with evidence in Fig. 2.3 that cell division ceases in leaves which have nearly completed their growth, so that drought would have maximal effect on cell division rates in larger leaves. However, drought may still influence the expansion of cells not fully expanded. This result shows the effect of drought on young leaves and supports the hypothesis that drought slows expansion and growth through its impact on both cell division and expansion. This also indicates that the developmental stage of the leaf at the time of initiation of drought is critical to the magnitude of the effect of drought on final cell number and leaf area.

Discussion

This research was designed to examine the hypothesis that changes in leaf area due to drought are dictated by the leaf developmental stage when drought is first perceived. This was established during 1984 when the effects of a single moderate drought reduced the potential proportion of leaf area for leaves still in the process of

withering. As a consequence of this hypothesis, it was inferred that the responses to drought are restricted to differential modifications of cell division and cell expansion during a particular leaf developmental stage. As presented in Table 3 B, the greatest reductions in area occurred in leaves which were larger than those younger leaves which showed earlier reductions in cell number. Further support of the hypothesis came from the heightened sensitivity of cells toward the drought indicated in Table 3 B. Leaves droughted late in their development showed more reductions in leaf cell numbers and leaf area whilst leaves droughted earlier in their development displayed considerable reductions in final cell number and leaf area.

CHAPTER 10
 THE PORE AND WALL FLUID THRESHOLD
 OF EXPANSIVE SOFTENED LATEX RUBBER

The irreversible increase in the size of plant cells (called expansion growth) is characterized by both a flow of water into the cell and by an accompanying relaxation of their walls. A mathematical description of cell growth as thought to exist, requires a weakening of the structural integrity of the cell wall at the point where the wall begins to relax irreversibly. This point is termed the cell wall yield threshold. As a consequence of this relaxation, the internal pressure of the cell exerts against the cell wall decreases. This in turn creates a thermodynamically favorable gradient for water flow from the exterior of the cell to the interior. The flow of water into the plant cell then increases the volume of the cell. Equations have been developed (Hochberg, 1984; Jones et al., 1975) which apply expansion growth changes to the cell wall (eqs. 4-1) and the flow of water into the cell (eqs. 4-2) during expansion growth:

$$\Delta V/\Delta t = \Delta P/\tau \quad (4-1)$$

$$\Delta V/\Delta t = \Delta P/\tau \quad (4-2)$$

Table 4-1 lists the symbols used in these equations. Equation 4-1 indicates that the relaxation changes in cell volume due to cell relaxation is equal to the longer or shorter of the cell wall yield threshold times a proportionality factor termed the cell wall extensibility. Equation 4-2 expresses the relationship between the

Table 4.1 Symbols and units used in equations (1) and (2) and in Chapter IV.

Symbol	Units	Equation
$1/\text{yr}$ or yr^{-1}	cell mortality	yr^{-1}
$1/\text{yr}$ or yr^{-1}	cell growth rate or rate of water loss	yr^{-1}
μ	growth	yr^{-1}
λ	cell yield threshold	yr^{-1}
σ	growth potential	yr^{-1}
ρ	cellular resistance	yr^{-1}
τ	hydraulic resistance	yr^{-1}

relative change in cell volume due to water entry, $\Delta V/V$, and $\Delta \psi$ the water potential difference between the inside and the outside of the cell. This water potential difference is equal to the difference between the osmotic potential outside minus the sum of the osmotic potential plus turgor inside the cell. In additional terms, the cell-wall diffuseness, as modified by the osmotic potential to account for the permeability of the cell membrane to some solutes. A hydraulic conductance, L_p , relates the total water potential gradient to the rate of water entry.

An important question is whether the cell extension equation (eqs. 4-1) under the water influx equation (eqs. 4-2) may be used as a basis for describing organ growth, or whether some other experimental test is required. Multiple have been made to combine cell growth equations with water transport principles of tissues to describe organ growth (Coomes, 1963; Hale and Taylor, 1970; Hild and Weger, 1961) but generally the simplicity of the equation has overwhelmed all but the neglect of mass. However, water transport characteristics of the tissue need not be considered if the tissue water flux is sufficient to meet the needs of expanding cells. Expanding cells have the capacity for short term stored growth which allows them to make up for lost growth rate conditions for several hours (Fennell (1966) et al., 1973). Short term water deficits due to low tissue water transport conductance may therefore be compensated provided that at the very least, lost cell water potential can be replenished with apical water potentials during the night.

Cell water potential also appears to influence root growth in relation to several stresses. First, water transport through cell membranes while the changes associated with cell expansion are irreversible therefore, growth is not restricted by cell water transport capabilities but by changes associated with the cell wall (Kangroo, 1984). Secondly, resistances of hydraulic conductance for gas cutured cells have been shown to be sufficiently high to maintain rapid and sustained growth rates (Kangroo and Cleland, 1981; Kangroo, 1985).

Root water intake and cellular water transport properties appear to be of consequence when considering soil thermal changes in leaf cell volumes, and however irreversible growth is only associated with irreversible changes in the cell walls, it is necessary that to only evaluate the cell wall relaxation equation from 4.13 for cells in the leaf to derive leaf cell growth rates. In order to derive consistent usage with other water relations terminology, the cell wall relaxation equation was modified from one which applies to cellular water relations to one which applies to leaf properties of all cells in a leaf. To distinguish the cell wall relaxation equation from the modified form for leaves, the word "cell" was dropped and "leaf" was added to each term in the equation (cell wall yield threshold was renamed the leaf wall yield threshold).

In this chapter, two parameters of the wall relaxation equation, the larger potential and wall yield threshold, will be examined. The objective was to determine values for these parameters under field conditions. Equally important was the evaluation of the influence of

thought as the balance of inputs minus the wall yield threshold is field-grown systems (Hillman and Hillman 1980).

The wall yield threshold has not been measured in any plant tissue or organ under drought, field-grown conditions. Yet, it is claimed that the effective target, the difference between target potential and the wall yield threshold, is the principal regulator of growth in many vascular tissues (Hillman 1980; Hillman et al. 1981; Hillman, Pollock and Hillman 1980). Target potentials and growth rates were measured by Bisco (1971) in wall-cultured soybean leaves grown in 1% growth regulators, concentrated and under field conditions. One can conclude from his data that wall yield thresholds ranged from 0.20 to 0.28 MPa. Van Wijk (1980) reported 0.1-1.0 MPa range for leaves cultured. Van Pollock and Hillman (1981) inferred from target and growth rate data that the wall yield threshold was approximately 0.25 MPa for leaves placed under slight to red light. Using a constant technique, primary leaves of bean seedlings grown in liquid culture (Hillman and Van Pollock, 1981) were found to have wall yield thresholds less than 0.20 MPa. When the wall yield threshold of growth chamber-grown bean leaves was measured with a gas pressure psychrometer, wall yield thresholds averaged 0.24 MPa (Van Pollock and Hillman, 1984). Using micro-pressure probes and psychrometer techniques on dark grown pea stems (Hillman, Hillman & Chipman et al. 1980) measured wall yield thresholds of approximately 0.20 MPa. These laboratory studies of the wall yield threshold were needed to expand the capability of measurement techniques and to establish the theoretical procedures of the biophysical control of

1967). Further, 1/2% sodium salt solution on detached leaf samples of the soil yield threshold tested for production of calli and root growth.

To evaluate the soil colonization systems in leaves of *Arabidopsis* and drought-tolerant grass systems, the leaf soil yield threshold in leaf target were obtained dynamically as well as statically over three years of experimentation. It was found that targets of mature leaves follow a typical wave pattern change dynamically. Because leaf targets from droughted plants were lower than those harvested from leaves of well-watered plants, soil yield thresholds were determined with vapor pressure psychrometry at night or early morning prior to sunrise. Soil yield thresholds of well-leaves, which had normally escaped from the wilting, were higher in droughted leaves than in well-watered ones and differed in magnitude by approximately 4.5% after leaf soil yield thresholds increased on the last approach soil exposure.

Soil Yield and Methods

Soil Yield and Measurement

Leaf leaves collected from soybean leaves were placed in leaves psychrometer chambers and allowed to equilibrate at $\pm 20^{\circ}\text{C}$ water bath for 3.5 h before reaching final water potentials with a desiccant suspension. After total water potentials were recorded, the chambers with leaf leaves samples collected within were removed from the psychrometer and sealed with a screw-on cap which had been coated with petroleum jelly. These cells were then placed into a frozen

For Figures 2 and 3 days to 10 days (20 to 100) hours in duration. The results The results potential, elsewhere containing stress leaf tissue were removed from the forest, allowed to equilibrate with ambient air (20°C) and connected to psychrometer assemblies within a few seconds after harvest. The psychrometer assemblies included the leaf tissue were then placed in a water bath at 20°C for 4 h. Specific potentials were read and recorded with a dew point microvoltmeter and strip chart recorder, respectively. Total and osmotic water potential data were converted from microvolts to units of pressure (MPa) by means of a standard equation. This equation was obtained by measuring psychrometer voltage output when equilibrated over 50% solutions of known water potential. Leaf turgor was calculated as the difference between the osmotic and total water potentials.

Measurement of the Well Yield Threshold as Water Potential Experiments

Using vapor pressure psychrometers to measure well yield threshold is a new method proposed by Casper (1981). He stated that if a piece of growing plant tissue is removed from a source of water, he would show a leaf sample is collected. The water potential determination is a vapor pressure psychrometer, the well water will undergo evaporation. The evaporation of a well will may be caused as slippage of the bands holding the cellulose membranes of the well together (Casper, 1981). As the well becomes, higher pressure that the well contains plus against the well wall begins to drop. The final target pressure after complete well evaporation is termed the well yield threshold. As discussed earlier, the well yield threshold

ii) The critical turgor must first be exceeded before growth occurs (10,11). Well established only occurs in growing cells, as turgor is constant, consequently cells does not change if they are removed from a source of water.

Three conditions must be met before the wall yield threshold may be reached by turgor pressure psychrometry. A first condition is that the turgor potential must be greater than the wall yield threshold at the time leaf tissue is removed from a source of water. This condition may or may not be met as leaves from field-grown plants never there may be a significant portion of the day when the turgor potential is below the wall yield threshold. To ensure that the turgor potential is above the wall yield threshold in leaves of field-grown plants, leaves should be sampled during the night when there larger potential than due to better water balance. A second condition is that above the wall yield threshold equals the difference of total and osmotic potentials subsequent to cell excision, the osmotic potential must remain constant during equilibration. A third condition is that thermal and water vapor conditions within the psychrometer chamber equilibrate prior to measurement of the wall yield threshold. The latter two conditions are discussed in more detail in Appendix B, but briefly, it was found by experimentation and in theoretical events that the osmotic potential is essentially constant during the measurement of wall yield threshold in a psychrometer chamber. The best transport characteristics of a psychrometer chamber assembly, as measured and calculated in relation to the chamber geometry and materials, was found to be sufficiently

rapid. The same response to this technique in a phythometer chamber as measured and calculated was found to be sufficiently rapid to allow measurement of the root yield threshold within 2.5 h after thermal stratification had been completed. Since root biomass response at least 2 h to approach their root yield threshold (Coomes, 1981), rapid precise phythometers provide a convenient means by which to measure this important soil growth parameter. Coomes et al. (1984) successfully used this technique to measure the root yield threshold in pot plants.

Field Experiments

A series of field experiments were conducted over a 3-year period to evaluate root barrier and the root yield threshold of barley, wheat, corn and soybean systems. The cultural practices employed in each of the experiments were discussed in Chapters II and III

(1984). An experiment was conducted to evaluate the root yield threshold over several harvest cycles. The experimental treatments and plot layout were discussed in Chapter II; however, several additional considerations need to be stated. The treatments consisted of irrigation every 4th or 6th day. Two 4-day cycles were imposed, the first being initiated on 2 May when the 4th seed had just emerged from most fields and the second on 12 May. Total and available soil water potentials were measured every 4 h during the last day of each 4-day irrigation cycle and the day following. Irrigation at the 4th day was applied at 2000 mm to prevent drought in the comparison to the irrigation to be withheld. Samples for water potentials were taken

to represent a leaf from the 1st leaf (youngest) to 10th (oldest). The first sample was the entire terminal leaflet from the youngest leaf to have just emerged from the sheath. The leaf from the 1st cycle and the 10th leaf for the 2nd cycle). The second and third samples were from the base and tip of the next oldest leaf. These latter two samples consisted of a leaf disc situated with a 3 cm diameter leaf punch.

1981. In addition to changes in leaf number and leaf yield threshold at different leaf positions, larger plants were measured on leaves located at the 4th through 10th nodes of field-grown, droughted and well-watered soybeans. In 4 June, 1981, a 70 x 100 m plot was seeded in a manner similar to that described for the work conducted in 1980 (see Chapter 10). All crop establishment and management practices were also the same with the exception that half the plot was well watered, being irrigated with 20 mm water during periods of rainfall insufficient to meet crop requirements and the other half subjected to natural drought throughout the season. Throughout the growth of the crop, leaf samples were taken from both treatments for the determination of turgor potential at random times throughout the day. Effort was made to sample leaves having a variety of sizes. From each plant, the terminal leaflet from the youngest leaf to have emerged from the sheath was sampled. The second and third samples were taken from the 3 leaves which subtended the first sample. Occasionally, fully expanded, mature leaves were sampled as plants used for the final three samples. Leaves which were larger than 20 cm² were sampled by means of a leaf punch or dissected sections. Turgor potential measurements were performed as stated above, except

The phytometers within each leaf cluster were permitted to equalize for 2 h before leaf water potentials were read.

1984 Leaf turgor and leaf yield measurements were measured every hour over 4 separate nights to assess more thoroughly those variations. Four adjacent 15 x 30 x plots were tested on 2 April, 1984. Long and fluid management was similar to that described for the 1983 experiment, with the exception that Wilson (L.I.-Bulbophyllum) was interspersed into the field on 12 March to induce constant populations. All plots were irrigated by overhead sprinklers every second day with 30 mm of water unless otherwise indicated.

On 3 separate occasions in 3 separate plots, drought was imposed by withholding irrigation for 5 or 10 days. Total soil-water leaf water potentials and areas of the leaves sampled were measured during each of the 4 experimental periods. Water potential measurements were made hourly and averaged at 1700 (EST) and were completed the next day at 1200 (EST). The first plot was droughted between the 1st and the 17th of May. Water potentials and leaf areas were measured on 11 and 12 May. In the second plot, a well-watered treatment, leaf water potentials and leaf areas were measured on 21 and 22 May. The third plot was droughted between 28 May and 2 June. Leaf water potentials and leaf growth were measured in this plot on 21 May and on 2 June. The fourth plot was well-watered and was sampled for leaf water potential and leaf growth on 12 and 13 June. The droughted plots were designed as were the well-watered ones subsequent to the experimental period.

The procedure for measuring leaf water potential was identical to those used in 1981 with the exception that total leaf water potentials were measured after allowing the leaf tissue to equilibrate for 1 hr. For the first three experimental cycles, three leaf discs were sampled with three replications for a total of nine water potential samples each hour. Four replications of two leaf discs were sampled during the fourth experimental cycle for a total of eight samples per hour. Care was taken to sample specific leaf areas based upon the length of the terminal leaflet.

In a separate experiment, an annual portion of an adjacent plot was split into an irrigated and a droughted plot, each approximately 15 x 15 m. The irrigated plot received 18 mm water per application with an overhead irrigation sprinkler whenever rainfall did not meet experimental requirements. The droughted plot was subjected to natural rainfall conditions which was marked by short periods of drought lasting no more than 4 days. Three times between 1 and 12 August, 4 to 5 leaf water potential samples were gathered from each plot each day just prior to sunrise. Water potential samples were taken from the smallest, most recently emerged leaf from the meristem and also from the most recent fully expanded leaf. Procedures for the measurement of water potential were as stated above (1984 experiment).

Results

1981

Experiment 1 (leaf) in 1981 was carried out to test whether reducing the well (W) threshold of droughted and well-watered plants from exposed leaves by increasing the number of measurement periods during the night and early morning when peak turgors are normally established in plants. This would lower the maximum turgor obtained in well-watered, primary leaves compared to the well (W) field threshold.

Leaf turgors from droughted plants (D) (Fig. 4a) were plotted with respect to time of day in Fig. 4. The maximum (40% leaf) and growing leaves (20% and 10% leaves). Before leaf turgors were at their lowest values of approximately 0.00 MPa at 1800 (DPT) and increased throughout the night to a maximum of 0.05 MPa by the following morning (Fig. 4a). Turgors in mature leaf tissue will never reach their well (W) field threshold value since to do so would indicate growth. These turgors are consistent with values measured in mature, fully expanded distal exposed leaf tissue (Gronwald, 1980 unpublished results). Turgors from the expanding 10% leaf, plotted in Fig. 4a,b, did not exhibit distal changes typically observed in mature leaves, instead they tended to remain steady at approximately 0.02 MPa between 1800 (DPT) and 0600 the following day after an initially low turgor of 0.00 MPa at 1700 (DPT) on the first day. The highest turgor, 0.05 MPa, was measured at approximately 0400. Turgors for the 20% leaf, the

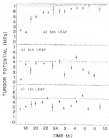


Figure 8.2 Change in tunnel potential of the 40%, 60% and 70% urea urea LBAP plates. T1 - 62 MPa, T20 - 40 MPa. Dashed horizontal line indicates the steady-state tunnel potential. Values are mean \pm S.E.

measured leaf temperature along various growth transmittance gradients associated with various leaf tissues (Fig. 4.2d). Indeed, a steady mature leaf temperature of approximately 20-25 °C was maintained throughout the night and early morning.

A second drought cycle (21-22 June) was used to obtain data to anticipate further leaf temperature patterns and expanding leaf tissues. Leaf temperature are plotted in Fig. 4.3 with respect to time of day for the mature leaf tissue, and the two youngest growing leaves (14th and 15th). At 1700 (EDT), mature leaf temperature (Fig. 4.3a) were approximately 20-25 °C and increased throughout the night to a maximum of 25-30 °C prior to sunrise. The 14th leaf initially had a temperature similar to that measured in a mature leaf at 1700 (EDT) (20-25 °C) but during the night obtained a maximum temperature of 25-30 °C (Fig. 4.3b). Leaf temperature of the 15th leaf was approximately 20-25 °C at 1700 (EDT) and increased slightly throughout the night (Fig. 4.3c). Maximum leaf temperature were 25-30 °C during the night, although these values were measured temporarily exposed to temperature averaging 20-25 °C. Similar to the first drought cycle, growing leaves did not show as large a change in temperature during the transition from day to night as did the mature leaf.

Leaf temperature from leaves of well-watered plants were also evaluated at several occasions. Leaf temperature from 20th May, 2004 are plotted with respect to time of day in Fig. 4.4 for the 14th leaf (mature) and for several growing leaves (15th and 16th leaf). Mature leaf temperature at 1700 (EDT) were 20-25 °C, rose to a maximum of 25-30 °C at 0000, and then dropped gradually to 20-25 °C in the morning on

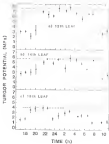


Figure 4.2 Annual average precipitation of the 1955, 1966 and 1976 years from designated points, 12 = 12 June, 1966. Dotted horizontal line indicates the steady maximum (upper potential) values are mean = 0.8

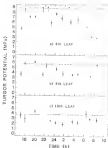


Figure 5.3 Diurnal surface potentials of the disk, den and 20th curves from well-saturated plants, 21 - 23 May, 1964. Dashed horizontal line indicates the steady maximum surface potential. Values are mean \pm S.E.

the following experiments, a.11 - Torpedo 100. The experimental fish here did not exhibit any definite pattern throughout the course of the evening and morning but torques generally remained around 0.41 MPa over the entire period (Fig. 4.4b). Likewise, the sleeping 200 fish did not display any large change in torque during the transition from day to night and maintained an average torque of approximately 0.26 MPa (Fig. 4.4c).

Leaf Torpedo fish receive and respond to stimuli on well-related plants were again measured on 30 May and 1 June, 1984, and are plotted in Fig. 4.4c. Only 2 classes of leaves were sampled to increase each sample size. Mature leaf torques at 1700 (EST) were 0-10 MPa and increased throughout the night to a high of 0.35 MPa before returning to 0.30 MPa on the morning of 1 June (Fig. 4.4d). Torpedo from small leaves did not exhibit any change during the sample period and generally remained around 0.20 MPa with a high value of 0.31 MPa at 0600 (EST) (Fig. 4.4e).

A second experiment was conducted to obtain more data on the leaf wilt yield threshold during a time when torques should approach their minimum values just prior to sunrise (1982). At that time, the torque potential of growing leaf leaves should exceed the leaf wilt yield threshold under these circumstances and when measured in a vapor pressure psychrometer, the torque potential should fall in the wilt yield threshold leaf torque limit ± 0.1 MPa for well-watered prop and mature leaves were 0.40/0.4 and 0.40/0.11 MPa, respectively. Fresh leaves of the smallest droughted leaves were 0.42/0.36 MPa and droughted mature leaves had torques of 0.30/0.17 MPa. As a means

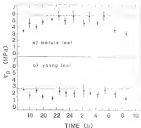


Figure 4.4. Stomatal liquid potentials of mature leaves and leaves recently sheared from the margins (from well-watered plants, 12 May through 1 June, 1988). Dashed horizontal line indicates the steady-state water vapor potential. Values are means ± 0.5 .

lowest target of droughted small leaves relative to their threshold in well-watered leaves indicated that these drought targets may be high yield thresholds. A comparison of the lower target in watered droughted leaves relative to well-watered ones puts into perspective the severity of drought.

1982

Temperatures of leaves gathered through the season and at various times of the day are plotted relative to the leaf area of the sampled leaf in Fig. 4.4 for well-watered and droughted treatments. Drought reduced surface leaf temperatures more than those from well-watered plants. The upper limit of target was approximately 5.1 MPa in small well-watered leaves (Fig. 4.4a) which is associated to approximately 5.5 MPa in small leaves from the droughted treatment (Fig. 4.4b). The higher targets occurred in small leaves of droughted plants were obtained during a night when targets probably increased due to increased water uptake and a drop in transpiration. The higher targets may have developed because cells were inhibited from expanding by a higher well yield threshold. These results are consistent with the data given for the 1984 experiments in that the last well yield threshold occurred for the young, topmost leaves of droughted plants.

1983

Leaf targets of irrigated (irrigated every 3 days) and droughted (irrigated every 9 days) plants are plotted against the time of day in Fig. 4.4 and Fig. 4.5 for the experimental period of 20 to 24 May, 1983.

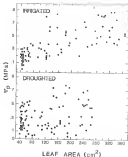


Figure 4. Leaf turgor potential (Ψ_L) for droughted and irrigated plants expressed as a function of leaf area, July and August, 1988.

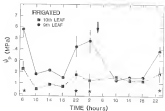


Figure 4-6 Turgor leaflet potentials from the 9th and 10th leaves from plants irrigated every 3 days, on 21 May, 1988. After induction (irrigation) values are mean \pm S.E. A star (*) indicates significant differences at the (alpha,05) level.

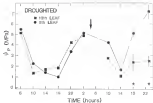


Figure 4-7: Internal xylem potentials from the 10% and 85% leaves from plants irrigated every 8 days, 20-24 May, 1992. Arrow indicates irrigation. Potentials are means \pm S.E. A after 1°C temperature increase differences at the 10% level.

This period was just prior to (or following) that drought for the plot irrigated every 8 days. The treatment irrigated every 16h (S₂) was not included since these data were, for the greater part, qualitatively intermediate between the well-irrigated and droughted treatments and in general, not statistically different from the other two treatments. Data for the two locations on the 9th leaf (base and tip) were combined in all treatments since their sample averages were not significantly different.

Temperatures of the irrigated 9th leaf were stable throughout the entire experimental period and averaged 8-13 MPa (Fig. 4.8). Temperatures of the droughted 9th leaf displayed diurnal changes probably associated with changes in temperature and solar radiation. Leaf temperatures reached a high of approximately 8.85 MPa during the early morning and dropped to 6.13 MPa between 2000 and 2400 (44°F).

In addition to the behavior of the 9th and 16th leaves of the irrigated treatment (i.e., oscillatory versus stable turgor, respectively) the droughted 9th and 16th leaves were synchronized with respect to their turgors throughout the period of drought (Fig. 4.9). Prior to irrigation, turgors between 6000 (10 days) and 6400 (26 days), MPa (barrier for the 9th and 16th leaf). However, subsequent to irrigation (after 6400), the turgor of the 9th leaf rose to approximately 8-15 MPa while the turgor remained at approximately 6-11 MPa in the 16th leaf.

DISCUSSION

Relationship of Tissue Water to Growth Rates

Will yield thresholds may be distinguished from leaf water potential data with more precision at night. During the night, when plants generally begin to express their water status, turgor rises in response to the increased availability of water. This means that, for at least part of the night, the turgor potentials will exceed the minimum turgor required for growth to occur (will yield threshold). If samples are removed from growing leaves at that time, the initial turgor will drop to the will yield threshold. These values should then correspond to the highest turgors observed during the night in droughted leaves, which turgors may not be higher than the will yield threshold. Evaluation of the will yield threshold then may not be possible. During the experiments of 1966, where leaf turgor of droughted plants was only 0.1 to 0.2 MPa lower than turgor measured in leaves from well-watered plants. This would indicate that during 8 days of drought, leaf turgor was able to recover to a large extent prior to wilting. Accurate measurement of the will yield threshold was possible at that time in these droughted plants.

Will Yield Thresholds in Leaves of Well-Watered Plants

In every year of experimentation, turgor potentials of well-leaved from well-watered plants were stable throughout the night at values lower than those measured in leaves, expanding leaves. For well-watered plants, the minimum leaf turgor (will yield threshold) of

small leaves ranged from 0.11 to 0.05 MPa while the largest leaves had minimum turgor ranged from 0.25 to 0.30 MPa (Table 4.1). This range of wilt yield thresholds for growing leaves of well-watered plants indicates the value calculated from the field data (0.28 MPa) of leaves (1971).

Wilt Yield Threshold in Response to Drought

A major goal was to observe the response of wilt yield threshold to drought. It has been well recognized that in response to drought, turgor potential in leaves, fully expanded oldest leaves declined. Lower turgor potentials were observed in droughted, mature leaves than in mature leaves from well-watered plants during every experimental period. However, the turgor of small, primary leaves were higher in droughted than in well-watered treatments as both the 1961 experiment and during the morning and early evening measurements during 1961. Maximum turgor of droughted small leaves ranged from 0.40 to 0.50 MPa while leaves from well-watered plants had maximum turgor in the range of 0.20 to 0.30 MPa (Table 4.1).

There appears to be a discrepancy in the response of small leaves to drought, from a standard interpretation of turgor potential in mature leaves, is actually a key in understanding the response of the wilt yield threshold to drought. That response for well watered small leaves equals wilt yield thresholds are discussed above. In droughted, growing leaves which had turgor above the wilt yield threshold for some portion of the night (as discussed earlier), the wilt value obtained in response to drought, is that more turgor would

TABLE 2. Mean height and correlated leaf area of detached and detached sprouts: means for experiments conducted between 1961 and 1964.

Experiment	Detached position	Mean leaf area	Height, cm
\bar{x} , 1962	9	6.27	8.85
s , 1962	20	6	8.81
\bar{x} , 1962, post. leav.	9	6.27	8.75
s , 1962, post. leav.	12	6	8.23
\bar{x} , 1963	9	6.27	8.41
s , 1963	12	6	8.27
\bar{x} , 1963	9	6.27 ^a	8.29
s , 1963	12	6	8.17
\bar{x} , 1963	small ^b	6	8.5
s , 1963	small	6	8.2
\bar{x} , 1964	9	7.9	8.55
s , 1964	9	8.20	8.47
\bar{x} , 1964	7	8	8.48
s , 1964	11	7.5	8.55
\bar{x} , 1964	14	8.27	8.57
s , 1964	20	8	8.49
\bar{x} , 1964	9	7.2	8.50
s , 1964	8	6.55	8.41
\bar{x} , 1964	12	6	8.34
s , 1964 ^c	small	6	8.25
\bar{x} , 1964	natural	7.5	8.55
s , 1964 ^d	small	6	8.25
\bar{x} , 1964	natural	7.5	8.35
s , 1964	small	6	8.43
s , 1964	natural	7.5	8.38

^a In detached, s in attached.

^b Leaves which recently emerged from the axillary nodes of branch 12.

^c Night-time temperatures dropped to 5°C.

^d 12 August.

measured by ΔT_{leaf} sensor). Stated another way, the wilt yield threshold increased as droughted, growing leaves. Hunt and Jupp (1981) also studied the threshold technique for measuring water potential, also observed an increase of approximately 0.2 MPa in the wilt yield threshold as droughted leaves mature (Jupp 1982). In droughted pea vines, Gargner (1982) reported an change in wilt yield threshold, as measured by a stress calibration and pressure probe technique. However, in her experiment, drought was imposed over a short time compared to the length of drought experienced in the field experiments (up to 8 days). Several days of drought might be required to appreciably increase the wilt yield threshold. Furthermore, since wilt yield threshold appears to be sensitive to the growth environment (Hunt, 1977), Gargner's results are not necessarily contradictory to the results in the present work.

An opportunity to observe the response of wilt yield threshold after release from drought was available during the experiment of 28 - 29 May, 1982. After irrigation in a droughted plot by 0400 on 28 May, turgor of a wilt, growing leaf changed abruptly from diurnal oscillations, having a maximum of 0.44 MPa, to a steady value of approximately 0.25 MPa. The latter value of turgor was similar to that of well, growing leaves from well-irrigated plots. Hunt (1981) stated, "In severely droughted plants should have been able to rehydrate sufficiently for turgor to exceed the wilt yield threshold. Evidence that this was the case lies in the fact that leaf turgor exceeded 0.7 MPa in the 9th leaf by 0400. Therefore, leaf turgor was higher than the wilt yield threshold in the wilt, formerly droughted

known as the well yield threshold. Therefore, the value recorded after equilibration equaled the well yield threshold? Whatever process caused well stiffening in response to drought, reversed rapidly upon rewatering.

Well Yield Threshold and Leaf Area

Stomata response and area of leaves measured on a randomized basis (samples for target potential) are presented for each of the experiments conducted between 1980 and 1984 (Table 4.10). Linear regression analyses were performed to correlate maximum stomata (well yield thresholds, WYT) with randomized leaf area (ALA), for both well-watered and droughted leaves. This resulted in equations 4-4 and 4-5 for well-watered and droughted leaves, respectively.

$$WYT = 0.37ALA + 0.30 \quad (r^2 = 0.94) \quad (4.4)$$

$$WYT = 0.24ALA + 0.48 \quad (r^2 = 0.96) \quad (4.5)$$

These equations support the concept that well yield threshold increases with increasing leaf area. The relationship between well yield threshold and leaf area supports an important relationship established from an examination of the well extension equations: well yield thresholds should never be exceeded by target in mature leaves, but to do so would require that they grow. This was also confirmed by Van Wilschoten and Gijzen (1984), who could detect no well extension in mature bean leaf tissue. These equations emphasize that, at maturity, leaves within experience target greater than 0.40 or 0.30 MPa in well-watered and droughted leaves, respectively.

Discussion

Soil yield thresholds were sufficiently narrowed with rapid growth psychrometers at night and infrared sensors in well-watered plants led to droughted plants which were able recover from drought during the night. Young leaves from well-watered plants had soil yield thresholds of approximately 0.5 MPa while similarly sized leaves from plants droughted for 8 days rose to 0.8 MPa. Equations were developed which related the soil yield thresholds to normalized leaf area for well-watered and droughted leaves.

CHAPTER V
EVALUATION OF THE RELATIVE LEAF GROWTH RATE AND WILT
SENSITIVITY IN FIELD-GROWN SOYBEAN LEAF

The wilt resistance equation (eqn. 5.1), was proposed in Chapter

$$G_{\text{REL}}/G_{\text{MAX}} = 1/(1 + R) \quad (5.1)$$

is not sufficient to describe leaf expansion. Turgor potential, P , and wilt yield threshold, T , were included in field-grown, droughted and irrigated soybeans in Chapter IV. To evaluate all of the variables of the wilt resistance equation in terms of field-grown soybeans, the leaf relative growth rate, $G_{\text{REL}}/G_{\text{MAX}}$, where the leaf area, A , is not equal to the volume, V , multiplied by a constant, from eqn. 5.1, and the wilt sensitivity, R , need to be measured or estimated. Therefore, a modified form (eqn. 5.1) of the wilt resistance equation was employed to study leaf growth:

$$G_{\text{REL}}/G_{\text{MAX}} = 1/(1 + V) \quad (5.2)$$

It had to be assumed the influence of drought on the leaf relative growth rate and the wilt sensitivity. Leaf relative growth rate was calculated from changes in the leaf area over various time intervals.

Drought caused symptoms of the concepts inherent in the wilt resistance equation over the last decade, there have been very few studies which attempted to measure wilt sensitivity. In fact, there have been no field studies of this potential despite the fact that it could, in theory, control the growth of plant organs.

Although Ye, Thompson, and Viscardi (1981) did not evaluate wall extensibility, they concluded that since the effective target, $(E + F)$, was not related to the growth rate, the wall extensibility must control expansion of growth chamber cross base (Thompson *et al.* 1981). However, calculation of wall extensibility from these data indicates that wall extensibilities would need to be several orders of magnitude higher than values obtained by other, more direct techniques. Another estimate of wall extensibility (Saper *et al.* 1981) may be plotted by isotropic equilibration curves in the measurement of wall yield threshold, so these values must also be lower than values reported by Saper (1981). Saper *et al.* (1981) made measurements of the wall yield threshold in less than 30 minutes after covering the material from the source of water. Saper (1981) has shown that the decline in the turgor potential to the wall yield threshold requires at least several hours. Saper (1981), who employed a single pitotium probe, developed a dynamic account of wall extensibility in dark-grown pea (*Pisum sativum*) stem cells and found wall extensibility values essentially indistinguishable from values measured with a steady-state approach. Since in his experiments have been carried out on the pericycle and because wall wall properties are greatly influenced by growth enhancement, there is a need to evaluate the wall extensibility under field conditions.

To assess the relation growth rate and wall extensibility of soybean leaves, field experiments were conducted over several years on detached and attached, soybean plants. Leaf relative growth rates

with 100% elongation. Elongation data represented as a normalized value for growth having mean greater than 20% of their total value. Measured leaf wall anisotropy was found to vary between 0.08 and $1.42 \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$. It was not possible to analyze effectively the data to determine the influence of drought on the leaf wall anisotropy.

Materials and Methods

Leaf growth data for this analysis were obtained from experiments performed in 1980 and 1981. The analysis conditions for the plants given in these experiments were presented in Chapters II and III.

Leaf Relative Growth Rate

In 1981, the length and breadth of terminal leaflets were measured with a millimeter scale and converted to leaf area by means of equation (2.1). Similarly, in 1980, only leaflet lengths were measured and converted to leaf area with equation (2.2). Leaflet elongation was measured periodically in the morning on the largest 5-terminal leaflets of 18 plants in plots irrigated every 2nd, 4th and 6th day (1981). The time interval between measurements ranged from 16 to 48 hours. From the change in leaf area and the appropriate time interval, the leaf relative growth rate was calculated. At the end of the experimental period, leaves which had been used for area determination were allowed to complete their growth under well-watered conditions. Upon full expansion, they were removed and their final areas were used to express previous leaf area as a normalized basis.

Relative Growth Rate was measured again in May and June, 1966. There is an attached plot and there is one which had not been irrigated for 4 days. The time interval between measurements was reduced to 14 hours. The average value of final leaf area of a particular node in a plot was used to calculate normalized leaf area.

Leaf relative growth rate was again measured in July 1966 on a normal irrigated plot at approximately every 4 h over a 4 day period. Plot averages of final leaf area were again used to calculate the normalized leaf area.

Leaf Roll Estimation

The roll estimation equation for leaves (eq. 5.2), can be rewritten to solve explicitly for roll sensitivity,

$$R = (1/W)(\Delta W) / (P - T) \quad (5.3)$$

Sensitivity is then a function of the leaf relative growth rate, the leaf length and the leaf roll growth threshold. Since each term on the right side of eq. 5.3 was measured, it was possible to then calculate the leaf roll sensitivity.

Results and Discussion

Leaf Relative Growth Rate

Leaf relative growth rate data collected in 1966 from irrigated and 4 day droughted treatments are plotted in Figs. 5.1 and 5.2, respectively. Since field plot averages of final expanded leaf area

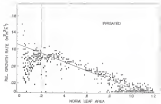


Figure 3.1. Leaf relative growth rates as a function of their normalized areas for irrigated plants, 1988

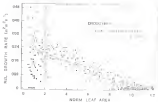


Figure 2-8: Leaf relative growth rates as a function of their normalized areas for droughted plants, 1994

were used as ~~unselected leaf areas~~ selected leaf areas. ~~Unselected leaf areas~~ selected leaf areas. As presented in Chapter III, two groups of data may be delineated: small leaves to the left of the perpendicular line at 0.5 units of selected leaf area and small leaves to the right. The latter group of data extends from the highest leaf relative growth rate to the lowest along a line whose slope decreases as it approaches unity on the abscissa. From Chapter III and Reference therein, it was shown that a significant number of cells are undergoing division in leaves which are still in the exponential phase of growth. Approximate deviation from the expected growth rate should result for leaves with a high percentage of dividing cells, since cells, while they are dividing do not expand (Gossamer, 1951).

Data collected in 1952 and 1954 were similarly analyzed by linear regression using only data from leaves having selected areas greater than 0.5. The slopes of the selected leaf relative growth rate for plants irrigated every 2, 4 or 8 days in 1954 are presented in Table 3.1. There is a general lack of statistically significant differences between the treatments irrigated every 4th or 8th day when the relative growth rates are compared on any given date. As the drought continued in steadily less the first to the eighth day, the slopes did not change in any regular fashion. However, when the slopes were averaged over all measurement periods, they significantly increased with an increase in the amount of irrigation.

TABLE 2-3 Slopes of regression of 1967 *schizothorax* counts vs. measured land areas for *guthrie* irrigated every 2, 4, or 6 days, 1961.

No. of years	Slopes of regression interval (days)			Total interval (days)
	2	4	6	
Slopes				
117-128	-0.000a	-0.000a	-0.000a	49
118-128	-0.000a	-0.000a	-0.000a	51
119-130	-0.001a	-0.007b	-0.000a	54
121-130	-0.000a	-0.000a	-0.000a	56
122-130	-0.000a	-0.000a	-0.000a	57
123-130	-0.000a	-0.000a	-0.000a	58
124-130	-0.000a	-0.000a	-0.000a	59
125-134	-0.000a	-0.000a	-0.000a	60
126-134	-0.000a	-0.000a	-0.000a	62
127-138	-0.000a	-0.000a	-	65
128-138	-0.000a	-0.000a	-	66
129-140	-0.000a	-0.000a	-	68
140-142	-0.000a	-0.000a	-0.000a	74
141-142	-0.000a	-0.000a	-0.000a	77
Totals	-0.0000 000a	-0.0000 000a	-0.0000 000a	
None ≥ 2 S.				

^aLow values followed by the same letter are not significantly different at the 10% level according to an analysis of covariance.

There are several possible explanations of the poor overlap between these slopes and the effect of drought on relative leaf growth rate on a daily basis. First is the manner in which data were collected and subsequently presented. All leaf relative growth data in this chapter are based upon cross-sectional data (Hankinson, 1981), which means that growth data are recorded from individual leaves at different times of the year. It is equivalent to recording the growth of individuals at different times along their growth trajectory. The assumption involved in utilizing cross-sectional data, as is done in this chapter, is that all individuals follow the same growth trajectory. Data presented in Chapter III indicate that small leaves expand differently than large leaves in drought. If so, then the leaf growth data must be viewed within the limitations inherent to cross-sectional data.

A second difficulty with the interpretation of leaf relative growth data stems from the rapid changes that occur in both the environment and in the leaf itself during the time interval over which growth measurements are made. This may have led to faulty estimations of the well known variability by Van Winkleburgh and Cleland (1980), who assessed effective turgor and relative growth rate but were over a 11 % period. These variables may change even in a constant environment due to cycling of stomata or control exerted by internal signals.

In 1980, leaf growth measurements were done over time intervals ranging from 24 to 48 hours. If leaf growth is dependent upon the water relations processes described above, then it is obvious that growth measured over such a 24-hour period (May and Jurek, 1984) will

growth rate was approximately equal to that found for these other treatments. To reduce the influence of this problem, an attempt was made to reduce the time interval between growth measurements. Leaf relative growth rates were calculated based upon a 4 h time interval in July 1984 (Table 5.10). The coefficient of determination from linear regressions of relative growth rate versus normalized leaf area, did not increase considerably with a decrease in the time interval between measurements from 24 h (May and June, 1984; Table 5.11 to 4 h (July, 1984; Table 5.11).

The failure to detect relative growth rate variability may have been due to changes in leaf target over time periods as short as seconds. There is ample evidence that several hormones are required before large changes are evident for when a closed petiole and veins a shadow over a leaf. Temperature may also influence the relative growth rate of aquatic leaves. Maximum leaf growth has been shown to have a base temperature of $8 - 10^{\circ}\text{C}$ in several studies (Baskin et al., 1973; Kinsella, 1984). During the night of 24 May and the morning of 1 June, air temperature dropped to 8°C and probably resulted in the low growth rate of the larger leaves observed during that experimental period (Table 5.11).

In each treatment, leaf relative growth rate data were averaged over 14 measurement periods in 1982 (Table 5.12). These mean values were used in developing equations which relate leaf relative growth rate of leaves having normalized areas greater than 0.2 to the normalized

TABLE 1.3. Effect of treatment B (low) compared to the 100000000 growth rates of untreated (low) on an effect of B.L. 1994.

Reaction	Day 1	Day 2	Mean	Standard	B	r ²
Unchanged	100	100	0.000	0.000	0.00	0.00
High increased	100	100	0.000	0.000	0.00	0.00
High increased	100	100	-0.000	0.000	0.00	0.00
Unchanged	100	100	-0.000	0.000	0.00	0.00

^aAll coefficients of determination were significant at the 100000000 level.

leaf area (cm²) . Then resulted in the following equations for well watered (eqn. 5.4) and droughted (eqn. 5.5) plants, respectively.

$$dL/dt = 0.217WLA + 0.007 \quad (5.4)$$

$$dL/dt = 0.217WLA + 0.007 \quad (5.5)$$

ESTIMATION OF LEAF WILT SUSCEPTIBILITY

Equation 5.3 was used to determine the leaf wilt susceptibility for a range of normalized leaf turgor potentials by substituting equations derived for the leaf relative growth rate (LGR_{REL}) and the leaf wilt yield threshold (Y). Equation 5.3 was solved separately for well-watered and droughted leaves. Equations derived for the leaf relative growth rate of well watered (eqn. 5.4) and droughted (eqn. 5.5) leaves were used in equation 5.3. The following wilt yield threshold equations for well watered and droughted leaves (eqns. 4.4 and 4.5, respectively) were also used in equation 5.3 to estimate wilt susceptibility.

$$WYT = 0.217WLA + 0.007 \quad (5.6)$$

$$WYT = 0.217WLA + 0.007 \quad (5.7)$$

Due to the dependence of leaf relative growth rate and leaf wilt yield threshold on normalized leaf area, leaf wilt susceptibilities could only be solved with respect to a range of normalized leaf area.

Plots of the estimated leaf wilt susceptibility as a function of normalized leaf areas for a range of leaf turgor potentials are presented in Fig. 5.2 for the well-watered case. An essentially identical plot was obtained using equations developed from droughted leaves as it is not presented.

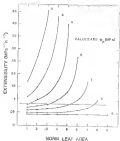


Figure 1.- Extensibility leaf with extensibility as a function of the normalized leaf area and for various leaf turgor potentials. Horizontal line represents a leaf with extensibility of 0.00 mm mm⁻².

to identify a pattern of leaf cell extension $\frac{dx}{dt}$ from Figs. 3.1 and 3.2, the leaf target must be known. The initial target potential (ψ_{target}) values were estimated by assuming that the total and osmotic water potential gradients were equal between the youngest growing leaves and the next fully expanded leaf. Target potential(s) in all growing leaves, then, should equal those measured in fully expanded leaves. Target potentials of fully expanded leaves were measured during May and June, 1988 in both well-watered and droughted plants (Figs. 4.1 - 4.3). Average values leaf target potentials during the 18 h measurement period were 5.35 and 6.35 MPa for the well-watered treatment (11 - 13 May) and the two droughted treatments (11 - 13 May and 12 - 13 June), respectively. From Fig. 4.4, it can be seen that at leaf target equal to 5.35 MPa (well-watered case), leaf cell extension rates ranged from 0.04 to 0.15 $\text{MPa}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for normalized leaf areas which ranged from 0.1 to 0.7. Leaf cell extension rates from droughted leaves having an average target of 6.35 MPa, ranged from approximately 0.04 to 0.40 $\text{MPa}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for normalized leaf areas between 0.1 and 0.5. These lower values compare favorably with cell extension rates of 0.04 $\text{MPa}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ measured via optical relaxation and steady-state techniques (Gonggong, 1990) on pea stems and other theoretical relations (Gonggong, 1991).

Conclusions

The cell extension equation (eqn. 5.10) was proposed to serve as a model of cell growth in leaves of droughted and irrigated soybean. Leaf relative growth rate was measured in well-watered and droughted

Furthermore, there are some "outliers" where the falling curves with normalized stress less than 0.2, the slope of relative growth rate versus normalized leaf stress are used in the cell wall relaxation equation to evaluate wall extensibility. Reported wall extensibilities from field experiments (0.08 to 0.40 $\text{dN}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$) were in reasonable agreement with a value of 0.10 $\text{dN}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ reported by Guyot et al (1981). This strongly supports the ability of the cell wall relaxation equation to model changes in both populations of cells as stress is imposed.

CHAPTER VI
[INTRODUCTION] JOURNAL OF LEAF GROWTH MODEL

From a mechanistic viewpoint, growth and development of leaves under optimal or stressed conditions have not been understood, nor has there been much success in predicting their basic plant processes. Jones and Hesketh (1982) concluded, after developing a leaf growth model that more research was needed which would be "based on a mechanistic approach . . . and which would quantitatively synthesize the effects of stresses on the rate of initiation, growth and termination of individual organs of a plant". Understanding growth and development of leaves is critical to any effort to improve the yield potential of all crops, since it is the leaf, as the primary photosynthetic organ of plants, that delivers the upper limit to plant function. Therefore, a mechanistic model of leaf growth based upon the water relations and population dynamics of leaf cells was developed. The primary goal of that model was to assess the importance of leaf target, cell growth threshold, cell extensibility and other parameters thought to play a role in cell division and leaf growth. A second major objective was to determine the impact of drought through these factors on leaf growth.

There are few models in the literature which attempt to relate the effects of drought to the growth and development of individual leaves. Available models describing growth and development of individual leaves are computationally bulky, are based upon

numerous empirical investigations, and employ the $\frac{1}{2} \frac{dV}{dt}$ term within the leaf as the basis for estimating growth (Charles-Edwards, 1974; Thomas et al., 1981). Water potential variables are generally ignored and morphological characteristics are not utilized as a basis for development, so the ability of these models to predict leaf growth during periods of stress or post or non-stress is

A major feature of the model presented in this chapter is the portrayal of leaf growth as a combination of cell production and their subsequent expansion. A critical element of this model is that, as the stresses of other limiting factors on growth, such as low temperatures or poor nutrition, the duration of cells is limited by the ability of each cell to expand to a critical volume needed for cell division to occur. This requirement is based on the simple observation that cells do not continue to divide without subsequent increases in volume. For as $dV/dt \rightarrow 0$, cells would quickly deplete themselves into water having volume smaller than cell wall expansion. The limitation of leaf cell expansion is also unique in that the cell wall relaxation equation (eqn. 1.1) serves to set the rate of cell expansion as well as acting as a pressure limiting the duration of cells.

Model Development

Volume of New Leaf Growth

Cell division is a short leaf originates from meristematic zones within a young leaf structure. Cells produced in the meristematic increase in volume but at a rate much slower than expansion which occurs after meristematic activity has ceased (Charlesworth and Brown,

1964). Once the leaf ~~has~~ stopped from the meristem, differentiation of the epidermis, vascular, palisade and mesophyll cells has been completed. At this time, cell division ceases except within cells defined morphologically as leaf scars throughout each leaf layer. The apical leaf growth zone only maintains cell expansion and division at this position and total leaf growth has stopped. Cell division proceeds at an exponential rate until the leaf blade has unfolded or, at some cases, several days after unfolding (Sachs, 1964; see Chapter III). Cell division ceases completely when the leaf blade has attained approximately 70% of its mature area although many species are capable of continued cell division until total leaf blade expansion. Cell division of the palisade layer in apical leaves may continue into the last quarter of leaf blade expansion (Sachs and Baskin, 1981). Sachs (1964) has predicted, based on cell division models, that leaves have the capacity for cell division beyond the time when division normally ceases. Unfortunately, no progress has been made in determining the mechanism for when cells cease to divide and when factors control final leaf size (Charles Bennett, 1976).

The factors controlling cell expansion have been proposed (Fowdard, 1960; Green et al., 1971; Casperson, 1981) and have served as a basis for considerable research effort (Sachs et al., 1981; Casperson, 1981). The factors controlling cell expansion were discussed in detail in Chapter IV, however, little information exists as to the relationship between individual cell expansion and whole leaf growth. Sachs (1964) has shown that the average cell volume in leaf leaves increases with time and leaf size. The increase in cell

volume in the lead grain serves as a crystal volume fraction in the lead growth model. It links the two basic processes occurring in the lead cell division and cell expansion.

The structure of the system lead growth model can be divided conveniently into cell expansion and cell division submodels. Each submodel will be described from a mathematical standpoint as well as a description of how each was implemented.

Integration of the Model

Cell expansion: A modified cell cell orientation equation (eqn. 8.1) was employed to determine the rate of cell expansion:

$$\dot{V} = (T_{11} - T_{10}) \quad (8.1)$$

where the relative expansion rate of a cell is \dot{V} ($\text{cm}^3 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$), the cell orientability is q ($\text{cm}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$), the time dependent cell target potential is T_{11} (eV) and the lead atom dependent cell field potential threshold is T_{10} (eV). Each cell in a lead is presumed to expand at a rate determined by eqn. 8.1 regardless of its initial volume.

Cell expansion requires that the target potential exceeds the cell field threshold, otherwise the cell orientability reduces the relative rate of expansion to the effective target ($T = 0$) and plays no role in determining cell expansion rates.

A constant cell orientability, $0.00 \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, is used throughout lead growth since it was the value determined by Chatterjee (1981) on the (111) planes of pure cells and represents the lower range of orientated values for both deformed and well-relaxed regions (see Case Chapter VI). Planchette will show that a deformed cell

anisotropy parameter, ρ is the soil bulk density to be determined.

Initial leaf area, A_0 , is given by eqn. (10.10), with $t=0$.

The wall yield threshold, $WY(t)$, is a function of leaf area (eqn. 10.11).

Wall wetted area, W , and deformed area, D , are given by eqns.

$$W(t) = 0.00014A + 0.0007 \quad (10.12)$$

$$D(t) = 0.00014A + 0.001 \quad (10.13)$$

Equations (8.12) and (8.13) were obtained by dividing the normalized areas in eqns. (8.4) and (8.5) by the final area of the 166 leaf 1660 cm^2 from a well-watered plant. The anisotropy of eqns. (8.12) and (8.13) are termed the initial wall yield threshold since this corresponds to the wall yield threshold of leaves as they emerge from the meristem. These equations reflect three important relationships between the wall yield threshold and leaf growth. 1) the wall yield threshold increases with increasing leaf size, 2) drought increases the wall yield threshold above that for well-watered leaves and 3) the wall yield threshold converges to one the maximum leaf area attainable. When the wall yield threshold reaches a value corresponding to the highest leaf turgor, cell expansion ceases and the maximum leaf area is attained.

Leaf turgor potential, $\Psi_L(t)$, is a function of the time of day t , time of day t_0 and is set equal to equations (8.4) and (8.5) for well-watered and droughted leaves, respectively.

$$\Psi_L(t) = 0.111t_0 + 0.0114(t-t_0) \quad (8.14)$$

$$\Psi_L(t) = 0.111t_0 + 0.0114(t-t_0) - 0.20 \quad (8.15)$$

The turgor potential threshold is assumed to occur when a value of 1.400

for both equations. The turgor cell values of turgor potential are

0.17 and 0.17 MPa for well-watered leaves and 0.43 and 0.08 MPa for droughted leaves. The times of sunrise and sunset are not relevant to the success of the model in predicting final leaf area since it is only the daily integrated vapor potential which determines final leaf area. However, to properly interpret variations of observed fluctuations in growth rates, vapor potentials were cumulated to reflect those assumed under field conditions. The magnitude of the vapor potential (0.18 MPa) is the same for well-watered and droughted leaves. This was necessary under field conditions and may reflect the ability of the entire plant to regulate water loss to certain physiologically important limits.

Cell Division. An equation limited the minimum-volume division function (eq. 4.8) was developed to link the process of cell division with cell expansion:

$$D(t) = 100 + 800 \quad (4.9)$$

$D(t)$ is a time-dependent cell volume (μm^3), where t is cumulative hours from the moment the leaf emerges from the meristem. At that time the leaf is presumed to have ceased well-defined mitotically activity. $D(t)$ is more precisely defined as the cell volume which must be reached before the cell may divide. From eqs. (4.4) to (4.6) it can be seen that when a leaf emerges from the meristem ($t=0$), cells are required to have a volume of $800 \mu\text{m}^3$ to divide. Based on data presented in Fig. 3.7, the average cell volume at the time the leaf emerges from the meristem was $700 \mu\text{m}^3$. Thus average cell volume would then be insufficient for cell division to occur based on eq. (4.9). The slope of eq. (4.4), $11 \mu\text{m}^3 \text{ h}^{-1}$, establishes the rate of increase

to the natural cell growth rate (see eqn. 1). The appropriate slope for the increase in the minimum values required for division was chosen based on the final number of cells found experimentally for the 5th leaf (Fig. 2.11).

The minimum volume division function provides a means for increasing cell division in a regulated manner and thus limits final organ size (amounts to cell number determinants that later values, as leaf growth progresses, the ability of the cells to expand decreases due to reduced effective target mass) by an increase in the cell yield threshold. Cell division is regulated because the rate of cell expansion must keep pace with the minimum cell volume required for division established in eqn. (2.8). Equation (2.8) was used successfully in simulations of wild-tolerant and droughted leaf growth. This suggests that drought may act to reduce cell division directly through an effect on the potential expansion rate of cells and not through an effect on cell metabolism directly linked to the division of cells.

Development of the Minimum-Volume Division Function. Before presenting the final optimum leaf growth model, a derivation of a preliminary model used in regard to developing the minimum-volume division function (eqn. 2.8) is presented. The purpose of the preliminary model was to determine the effect of an assumed exponential rate of cell division during early growth on average cell volume. The change in average cell volume with time obtained from simulations of leaf growth with the preliminary model became the basis for evaluating the coefficients of eqn. (2.8). Exponential cell

diffusion rate was required by the model since both diffusion and reaction, earlier, found an exponential increase in the number of nuclei with time during early stages of growth.

The preliminary model uses a discrete basket approach to move nuclei towards a field of activity, whereas they seem to divide (Fleming de Vries and van Gier, 1981). A schematic listing of the model is presented in Appendix B. Each box, termed a volume change class (VCC), contains a specific number of cells at any given time with its associated cell volume expressed in cubic microns. Based on data presented in Chapter III, a leaf average from the meristem with approximately 15 million cells, and the average cell volume is $900 \mu\text{m}^3$. Therefore, at the initiation of leaf growth, which for present purposes corresponds to leaf emergence from the meristem, each of the lowest 15 VCC's are filled with one million cells. The smallest VCC is 400 cubic microns and successive VCC's are incremented by 5 cubic microns. This results in an average initial value of $890 \mu\text{m}^3 \text{ cell}^{-1}$.

Cell division is simulated by taking a certain percentage of the total number of cells and doubling them. This percentage is calculated by an exponential coefficient equal to 0.258 and an initial cell population equal to 10 million, both values approximated from data presented in Fig. 3.7 for a well watered leaf. Once a cell has divided, it is reallocated into a new VCC based on its new cell volume.

When cells divide they are then expanded according to the modified cell volume expansion equation (eq. 4.1). Equation (4.2) is used to determine cell growth threshold and cell automaticity is set to a

constant value of $100 \text{ mg cm}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$. Equation (3.8) is used to define leaf target potential. As each group of cells are exposed they are studied in a new VRC.

At each interval of time, the total leaf volume is calculated by summing the products of the number of cells in each VRC by that VRC's volume. Leaf volume was increased by 5% to account for air spaces. Leaf area was then calculated by dividing the total volume by an average leaf thickness of 150 μm (Lapp and Stansell, 1980).

The effect of exponential cell division on average cell volume delays leaf growth as illustrated by the average cell volume plotted against time (Fig. 3.11). Average cell volume increased linearly with time for approximately 84 h, then it declined to increasingly smaller values. The decline in average cell volume was due to the extremely high rate of cell division caused by exponential increase in the number of cells. Too many cells result in too small a volume for each cell. This supports observations that appeared in Chapter III, that the exponential increase in the number of cells is limited to 4 or 5 days after leaf emergence in many cases of leaf growth.

A linear regression analysis of the relationship between average cell volume and time led up to day 5 resulted in eqn. (3.10). This equation is termed the minimum volume-dividing function where V_0 is the leaf cell volume (μm^3) and t is maximum time (h).

$$V = 20V_0 + 10t \quad (3.10)$$

This equation simply states that a cell must attain a minimum,

time-dependent volume before it may divide. Initially when the leaf has emerged from the meristem, cells must have a volume of $20V_0 \mu\text{m}^3$ to

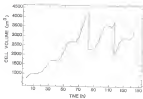


Figure 4.5 The change in the cell volume with time, for the 4th trial completed with a preliminary growth period.

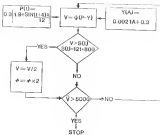


Figure 3.2 Flow chart of the mycorrhizal leaf growth model.

1981) are assumed at average values of 400 m^3 and 2000 m^3 respectively. Since the 20 m^3 is less than the one which provides 10% of the potential in an average cell volume of 700 m^3 per cell at 10% level in late growth.

Simulation of Leaf Growth - General Case

To facilitate interpretation of the data and a subsequent parameter analysis, the general values of the parameters and equations used to simulate growth of the 4th leaf of well-watered and droughted soybean plants are listed in Table 3.1. Simulations of growth of a well-watered leaf were performed in Microsoft Excel. Leaf area and cell number as a function of time were outputs of simulations using the parameters listed in Table 3.1.

Simulated number of cells for a well-watered leaf are plotted in Fig. 3.2. The early increase in cell number was exponential-like, and the overall increase in cell number over time was sigmoidal. Cell division ceased at 160 h. Simulated cell number was essentially identical ($r^2=0.991$) to those measured in cell number (see Table 3.1, Fig. 3.1).

Simulated change in area of the 4th leaf from a well-watered plant also is plotted in Fig. 3.2. Leaf area increased sigmoidally with time and terminated growth at 160 h. The simulated final leaf area was within 4% of the measured leaf areas (Table 3.1, Fig. 3.1).

Table 4.2: Observed values and equations used in simulations of hydroxyl and quartz during well-mixed and droughted conditions

Variable	Units	Well-mixed	Droughted
ϕ	$\text{cm}^3 \cdot \text{L}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$	0.08	0.08
θ	mm	$0.0025 \cdot \theta + 0.0011 \cdot \theta^2$ (11)	$0.0011 \cdot \theta + 0.0003 \cdot \theta^2$ (12)
γ	mm	$0.000075 \cdot \gamma + 0.3$	$0.000075 \cdot \gamma + 0.3$
ΔH	$\text{cm}^3 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$	$12\% \pm 400$	$12\% \pm 400$

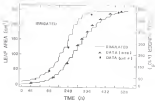


Figure 4.5: G6bA (area) and G6bA (cell no) of 4 replicates of G6b clone and cell number increase during the growth of the G6b clone.

One-dimensional leaf

Many models of growth require a sigmoidal, S-shaped, or *hyperbolic* function to describe a growth, the shape of a growth trajectory. It is significant that it has been possible for the first time to portray accurately the growth of a leaf in terms of well defined and rigorous without the use of any predetermined notion of the shape of a growth curve. Isolated and natural data are nearly identical over the entire growth period. A sigmoid shape of leaf area expansion resulted from hourly determinations over a 22 day period. Furthermore, early increase in both leaf area and cell number were exponential. Constant of isolated cell division 1 in 8 days in absence of cell elongation mirrored the later-relationship between cell division and expansion in a growing leaf.

Parameter analysis

To perform a sensitivity analysis of each parameter of the sigmoid leaf growth model (Fig. 4.15), all parameters were held at their natural values except the one which was varied through an appropriate range of values. Each parameter was estimated to determine its effect on the number of cells and area of a fully expanded, undistorted leaf. Each parameter was varied utilizing three values to determine leaf growth: 1) when the average cell volume was $2000 \mu\text{m}^3$ or less, 2) at $500 \mu\text{m}^3$ or 3) at $750 \mu\text{m}^3$. Natural values or equations of model parameters are listed in Table 4.1 to aid in the interpretation of the parameter analysis.

Leaf Will Automability

A natural leaf will automability threshold $0.05 \text{ mPa}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ was employed in simulations of growth of 10,000 final water cell number and developed conditions (Table 4.11). The range of leaf will automability tested was 0.00 to $0.50 \text{ mPa}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$. The resultant range of cell numbers in fully expanded leaves was simulated to be 50 million to 1.4 billion (Fig. 4.4b). The shape criteria used to terminate leaf growth resulted in no difference in the final number of cells for leaf will automability greater than $0.10 \text{ mPa}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$. Below $0.05 \text{ mPa}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, the average cell volume increased beyond 5000 m^3 if leaf growth continued beyond 300 s.

The effect of leaf will automability on final leaf area is plotted in Fig. 4.5. Increasing leaf will automability beyond $0.05 \text{ mPa}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ did not influence final leaf area. Below $0.05 \text{ mPa}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, leaf area decreased rapidly to 15 cm^2 at $0.01 \text{ mPa}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, with the exception of $0.00 \text{ mPa}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, none of the stagnant criteria yielded significantly different final leaf areas over the range of leaf will automability tested.

Leaf Will Yield Threshold

Leaf will yield threshold was altered through changing the equation which related leaf will yield threshold to leaf area (eqn. 4.21). The intercept of this equation, termed the initial leaf will yield threshold, was varied between 0 and 0.5 MPa , with a constant value of 0.5 MPa for well-watered leaves. Final cell number increased

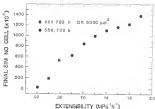


Figure 4-4 Simulated changes in the number of cells over a range of cell extensibilities per cell with those values used to stop cell growth.

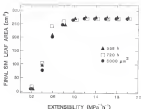


Figure 4.5 Simulated changes in the total leaf area over a range of cell extensibilities and with those stresses used to stop leaf growth

with decreasing initial seed yield threshold (Fig. 4.4). The final number of cells produced was independent of the stopping criterion for initial seed yield threshold greater than 0.2 MPa. For lower values, cell volume increased beyond 5000 μm^3 when leaving was prohibited to grow beyond 50%.

The influence of the initial cell yield threshold on final cell size is plotted in Fig. 4.7. Final cell sizes were mostly unaffected by initial cell yield threshold less than 0.2 MPa. At higher values, the initial cell yield threshold above 0.2 MPa reduced final cell size dramatically. None of the three stopping criteria had a significant impact on the final cell size over the range of initial cell yield threshold tested.

Cell Division Slope

The slope of the minimum volume division function (eq. 4.4) termed the cell division slope, specifies the rate of increase of the minimum cell volume required for cell division. From eq. 4.4, the minimal cell division slope was $12 \mu\text{m}^3 \text{h}^{-1}$. The slope was varied between 5 and $20 \mu\text{m}^3 \text{h}^{-1}$, and the effect on the final cell number produced is presented in Fig. 4.8. Increasing the cell division slope decreased the final number of cells. Controls used to stop cell growth had no effect on the number of cells produced at slopes less than $12 \mu\text{m}^3 \text{h}^{-1}$, with an increase in the cell division slope beyond $12 \mu\text{m}^3 \text{h}^{-1}$, average cell volumes were greater than 5000 μm^3 when proliferation exceeded 50%.

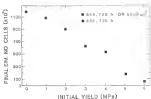


Figure 5.4. Reduced observed in the final number of cells over a range of initial soil yield (averages and with those errors used to crop final growth).

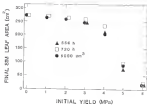


Figure 4.7. Simulated changes in the final leaf area over a range of initial yield reduction levels with three harvests used to stop leaf growth.

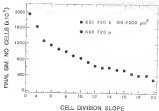


Figure 4-8 Analyzed changes in the number of cells over a series of cell division slopes and with three distances used to stop leaf growth.

cell division time of the same $10.5/2.5 \times 10^3 \text{ h}^{-1}$, 488 cells growing to 1,000 cells over the longest duration recorded in a study of 1200 seed area (a little less than 120 m² in 10 m² h⁻¹ step at 41, 1000 cells area was essentially the same whether growth was stopped at 488 or 720 h over the range of cell division slopes measured. For 1000 division slopes greater than 12m² h⁻¹, when leaf growth was terminated by limiting average cell volume to 5000 m³, final leaf area was lower than when 500 or 720 h were used as stopping criteria.

Initial Cell Volume Required for Division

The relationship of the maximum volume division function (eq. 4.1) corresponds to the volume for cell division of a leaf that just emerged from the meristem. The maximal value is 800 m³. The initial cell volume for division was varied between 400 and 1400 m³. The final number of cells decreased significantly with decreasing initial cell volume required for division such that there was only a difference of 25 million cells between maximal cell volumes of 400 and 1400 m³ (Fig. 4.10). For maximal cell division volumes of 400 and 1400 m³, each of the stopping criteria resulted in identical cell number at the end of leaf growth. When cell division volumes were smaller than 800 m³ at the onset of leaf growth, average final cell volume increased beyond 5000 m³ when leaf growth continued beyond 500 h. The final leaf area was essentially constant over the range of initial cell division volumes tested (data not shown).

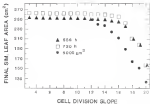


Figure 5.7 Isolated changes in the final leaf area over a range of cell division slopes and with those markers used to stop leaf growth.

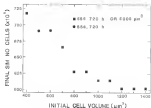


Figure 4.14 Simulated changes in the number of cells over a range of initial cell volumes and with three criteria used to stop cell growth

Simulation of Sensitivity of Parameters controlling Leaf Growth

Simulation-experiments were performed on two P_{max} -knowing four parameters: 1) P_{max} (leaf extensibility), 2) LTH_{max} with yield threshold, 3) cell division slope coefficient, 4) the actual cell volume, slight increases from the normal value of the initial cell yield threshold of 28 MPa, or the cell division slope ($22 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ h}^{-1}$) resulted in large decreases in the total leaf area. Similarly, a slight decrease of the yield extensibility from the normal value of $0.28 \text{ MPa}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, resulted in a sharp drop in the fully expanded leaf area. This indicates that these variations may control the growth of mycorrhizal leaves with only small changes in value from their normal levels. Van Wijkburg and Cleland (1994) described leaf growth regulation on the cell extensibility in their study of leaves (*Phaseolus vulgaris*) leaf expansion. Computer (SIMU) also demonstrated through simulation that yield yield threshold and cell extensibility could play significant roles in the control of individual cell expansion.

Significantly, the area of fully expanded leaves can not increase by variation of any of the four parameters assumed. Changes in these parameters expected to result in an increase in the fully expanded leaf area resulted instead in increases only in the number of cells.

Response to Water Potential

Simulation of Tissue Potentials

Simulations were conducted to examine the aspect of various levels of leaf turgor potential during leaf growth on the number of cells and area produced in a fully expanded mature leaf. Leaf turgor potential throughout a day was described by eqn. (3.4) for a well-watered leaf. To obtain a range of leaf turgor potentials, this equation was modified by adding the average ± 0.25 MPa to values of 0.25 MPa. Leaf turgor potential was then averaged over a 24 h period to obtain a single integrated turgor value called the average daily turgor. The average daily turgor potential is 0.57 MPa for eqn. (3.4) (irrigated) and 0.52 MPa for via droughted counterpart (eqn. 3.3) given in Table 3.1.

The influence of different average daily values of leaf turgor potential throughout the development of a leaf on the final number of leaf cells is plotted in Fig. 4.11. The number of cells in a fully expanded leaf increased with increasing average daily turgor. The average daily turgor of plants droughted for 3 days (0.52 MPa) resulted in less than 300 million cells produced, while turgor obtained in plants irrigated every 3 days (0.57 MPa) resulted in 420 million cells at the end of leaf growth. None of the scenarios used to stop leaf growth resulted in different numbers of cells.

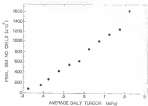


Figure 4-15. Variation of the effects of the average daily turgor on the number of cells on a mercury leaf and with three variables used to strip leaf growth.

Average daily turgor as plotted with respect to the area of cross fully expanded leaf in Fig. 8.17. Final leaf area was less than 50 cm^2 at the lowest average daily turgor and approached a maximum leaf area of 400 cm^2 at average daily turgors of 5.0-6.0 MPa. All stopping criteria resulted in similar final leaf area for the range of turgor stresses.

Simulation of leaf growth in response to drought-induced stresses to turgor and cell wall properties. Simulations of leaf growth, including values of leaf turgor potential and cell wall properties measured during drought, were performed to assess model performance and to assess its understanding the characteristic response of leaves to drought observed in the previous chapters. In these simulations, drought was imposed throughout the entire growth period of a leaf. The values of parameters used during drought are listed in Table 8.1.

Randomized number of cells with time is presented for a droughted and, for comparison, a well-watered leaf (Fig. 8.18). The production of cells during the first 4 days of growth of the droughted leaf lagged considerably behind that of the well-watered leaf. Also, the time to onset of the linear increase in cell number was delayed for several days. Interestingly, cell division of droughted leaves continued four days beyond the time when cell division ceased in the well-watered leaf. Overall, cell production in the droughted leaf was 30% less than in the well-watered leaf by the end of growth.

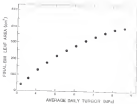


FIGURE 4.12 Illustration of the effects of the average daily temperature on the final root size.

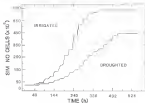


Figure 4.13 Simulation of changes in the number of cells with time during well watered and droughted conditions.

limiting leaf growth of one) and of treatment (Fig. 4.15). Expansion and well-watered leaves. During the first 4 days of growth, increases of the droughted and well-watered leaves indicated that area changes at this interval are not particularly sensitive to low turgor and higher well yield thresholds. Leaf growth during this interval may depend on the same physiological processes that exist in very small leaves without the variation. If so, then the simulated support observations made in Chapter 11 that leaf initiation is not as sensitive to drought as is leaf area expansion. However, after the 4th day, the simulated increase in area of the droughted leaf lagged considerably behind that of the well-watered leaf. The final area the droughted leaf attained was approximately 60% lower than the well-watered leaf.

Leaf relative growth rate. Simulated relative growth rate for a droughted leaf, when plotted as a function of normalized leaf area, was marked by daily fluctuations throughout the growth of the leaf (Fig. 4.15). Similar plots were obtained for a well-watered area (data not shown), the only difference being that the highest values of relative growth rate was $\frac{1}{2} \ln 2 \approx 0.35$ greater in the well-watered than in the droughted leaf. Daily fluctuations in the relative growth rate may be described as parabolas which open downward and whose vertices decrease as the leaf ages. Each time a the parabola ends on the abscissa which indicates that at one time per day the approximately 100% the relative growth rate was zero. Each vertex corresponds to 50% of the leaf length at its maximum value as to growth.

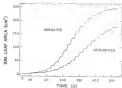


FIGURE 2.14 Evolution of changes in the area of a leaf with time during well watered and droughted conditions.

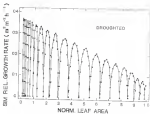


FIGURE 6.15. Normalized leaf relative growth rates versus normalized leaf area for a droughted leaf.

The correlation results are consistent with relative growth rates data from July, 1984 (Table 5.2), when a significant drop was found in the relative growth rates for data collected between 1200 and 1800 relative to the other periods. Relative growth rates were also higher in the morning and evening when larvae is expected to feed. In a study of the diurnal growth of more senior field crickets (*Gryllus texensis*), Shaw and Jensen (1984) indicated that more leaf growth occurred during intervals when larvae would be expected to be feeding. However, the source of growth in more may be sufficiently removed from environmental fluctuations to permit growth during hours of high solar radiation and temperature (Shaw and Jensen, 1984).

For the study of nymphal leaf growth (2000, 1984), weather conditions during the first several days were sunny and hot (Fig. 5.10). Growth of the 5th instar during this time was expressed several ways in Table 5.2 as an absolute rate (average between 1200 and 1800 (day) and between 1800 and 0000 (night)) and, as a relative measure in more (day/night). From 25 - 27 July (days 187 - 189), air temperatures and solar radiation were high. During that time, leaf larvae would be expected to be fed. From Table 5.2, absolute leaf growth was lower during the day than at night and the ratio of day to night growth was approximately .20. Over the following two days, air temperature and solar radiation indicated when growth during the day began to increase relative to growth during the night. This is consistent with the effect of drought on a reduction in the greatest magnitude of growth during the day as indicated by Fig. 5.10.

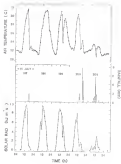


Figure 5. Solar radiation, temperature and radiation for the period of 24 through 27 July, 1994.

Table 100-1 Increase or decrease of mean sea level projected on an absolute basis. Data are for 1990 = 1990 and range from 1990 to 2050 and are a result of high and low models.

Year of year	1990		1990		Sea Level
	1990	1990	(1990 - 1990)	(1990 - 1990)	
Sea Level (mm)					
1990 - 1990			0.0	0.0	-
1990 - 1990		14.5	14.5	14.5	0.00
1990 - 1990		20.8	20.8	20.8	0.00
1990 - 1990		27.0	27.0	27.0	0.00
1990 - 1990		33.3	33.3	33.3	0.00

Effects of Leaf Development during Drought. (See Table 10.)

Drought on the growth of leaves as emphasized by the fact that leaves on a single plant are in various stages of development. The importance of this condition was outlined in Chapter IV during the discussion of the differential sensitivity of small and large leaves to drought. To investigate the influence of drought on the development of leaves, a simulated drought was imposed upon leaves of different sizes for a 5-day period (see Chapter III). Drought was simulated by reductions in leaf length and leaf width (measured as projected surface) (Table 8.11).

A reduction in the total simulated leaf area and number of cells relative to the untreated case is presented in Fig. 8.17 for leaves droughted at different initial leaf sizes. This may be compared with data collected in 1968 (Table 8.1) which is presented in graphical form in Fig. 8.18. Simulated leaf area was most influenced when leaves were initially less than 40 cm^2 . Although there was considerable reduction for initial leaf area up to 120 cm^2 , when leaves had completed approximately 70% of their growth (180 cm^2), cell division was not affected by a 5-day drought, but leaf area continued to decline by 15%. The final number of cells was reduced mostly for small leaves, i.e., those having initial areas less than 40 cm^2 .

Simulations of the influence of drought on leaves of differing developmental stages were accompanied by simulations of data collected in 1968. Both data and simulations show that smaller leaves were more sensitive to drought as indicated by reductions in final leaf area and cell number. Simulations would have been more realistic if leaf cell

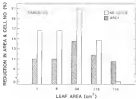


Figure 6.12 Radiation collection in the first year and number of cells from leaves throughout for 5 days at different stages of development.

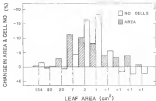


Figure 4.16 Changes in the final area and number of cells from leaves accepted for 4 days of full-term, mean of development.

defined by equation (14) and (15). Considered also is the effect of the development of damaged leaves on the adaptation to drought, which would enable leaves to expand cells not normally available for growth.

Discussion

Relationship between Cell Division and Expansion

The concept that cells must increase in volume before undergoing division was included in the volume versus division function (eqn. 11). It is apparent that cells decrease in volume before they divide, yet considerable effort has been paid to the identification of their peak growth moment (Gallagher, 1974; Sanderson, 1965; Sain, 1964). Clearly both processes occur simultaneously during early leaf growth.

This relationship may effectively regulate cell division. When cells exceed certain the required volume, cell division stops until cell volumes have increased sufficiently. This may explain the sequential waves of cell division and expansion noted in the root tips of wheat (Milling, 1966) by very early initiation (Hakkar, 1966; Fineman, 1962). In these studies, cell division and expansion were strictly exclusive. This is to be expected in tissues having narrow ranges of cell type and volume. In a leaf, the situation is complicated by the presence of epidermal, vascular, parenchymal and mesophyll cells, all with varying sizes and shapes (Gibson and al., 1966). Some cells have sufficient volume to undergo division while others do not,

lowest values of λ is having a fixed ratio of λ_{max} and λ_{min} available. Cell types having small values would be the least to have division since minimum may not keep pace with the minimum values required for division. As the demand for greater values for division outweighs the cells ability to expand or the environment limits the amount of target available to derive expansion (i.e. through drought), cell division stops. Based on a cell division model, Jain (1990) predicted that 10% of the cells at the end of diapause (a long leaf stage) maintain the capacity for cell division. This may correspond to the continued capacity of pericycle cells as reported to remain later in the development of a leaf (Jain and Kinsman, 1980).

Implied in the minimum volume function is the notion that average cell volume increases linearly with time. This is supported by results from Jain (1981), who plotted calculated area cell volume versus time for four leaves. Four linear regressions of his data were calculated, as $V = t^2 + 84$ resulted. This implies a close coupling between all aspects of leaf development including cell morphogenesis, cell expansion, and cell division.

Development of Developmental Aspects of Leaf Morphology and Volume Increase in Leaf Growth

It is significant that of the variables used in the equations to describe leaf growth, those which directly relate to physiological minimums of the cell wall (leaf wall yield threshold and the leaf cell wall extensibility) do not increase the size of a leaf when their values are changed in a direction expected to result in increased growth. Their responses, taken together with the uniform in leaf

area and will neither increase nor decrease the leaf area, but will increase that increase in area. This may only be achieved by increasing height and age through alteration of cell wall thickness alone.

Parameters of the cell wall expansion equation appear to control the final size of the leaf regardless of the permeability of the cells. See discussion. Thus Bell, taking with the sensitivity of leaf area to turgor applies that leaf wall turgor is the most critical aspect of leaf area protection. Historically, the association between leaf turgor and growth is long and debate filled. Leaf turgor measured in three environments showed a positive, linear relationship to leaf biomass expansion rate (Horn, 1971). Leaf expansion also exhibited a linear relationship to leaf turgor in 1945 growth, accepted and attributed evidence (Gart, 1966). Evidence contrary to any link between turgor and growth was reported by Marshall and Boyer (1961), who measured constant turgor in the growing region of corn despite variable growth rates. Likewise, with field grown soybean, instantaneous measures of leaf expansion rates showed extreme dependence on environmental signals but showed minor fluctuations with leaf turgor as measured with a pressure chamber (Hochberg et al., 1973).

Wall turgor is an absolute requirement for cell expansion because there must be an internal pressure to push against the cell wall to initiate cell wall expansion. The variable results of investigations of leaf turgor and growth may be due to the measurement techniques used to measure turgor and, possibly, due to the inability to measure turgor on a leaf area basis in all of the cells of the leaf. Thus

Leaf expansion is based upon the possibility that the leaf epidermis or some other tissue structure restricts leaf expansion. Large changes favorable for growth in cells located in the mesophyll

Discussion

A mechanistic model of xylem leaf growth was presented which incorporated as a regulated step, the division of cells and their expansion. The main feature of the model is its requirement that cells expand at a rate limited by the cell extension equation and to divide only when a time-dependent cell volume was attained.

Sensitivity analysis indicated that only increases in the turgor potential could effectively increase the leaf area. Leaf expansion as variations which relate to cell wall extension resulted in large decreases in the final leaf area obtained. The model was successful in predicting growth of the 4th leaf from a xylem plant during well-watered conditions. The model also performed well in predicting the relative and extent of drought induced growth reduction.

CHAPTER VII CONCLUSION

The goal of this chapter is to summarize and put into perspective the work of the preceding five chapters as well as to suggest future work and to identify unresolved issues.

The goals of the research in this work were to first, quantify the alteration of leaf growth and development in response to drought. The second goal was then to develop and to verify a detailed theory of leaf growth which would account for the characteristics of leaf growth during drought.

In Chapter II, the effects of drought on leaf expansion and leaf area expansion are investigated. The leaf area was reported to be linearly related to the plant's carbon index in a developed crop of 'Wheat' anthesis stage 5 to 6 leaves had formed. Despite an earlier report (Baskland et al., 1981) that changes in the plant's carbon index were significant indicators of drought stress, leaf area expansion was more severely reduced by drought.

In Chapter III, attention focused on leaf area expansion and the possible factors responsible for the characteristic reduction in the final area of leaves from droughted plants as well as the senescence of main leaves to drought. An hypothesis was proposed which stated that these characteristic decreases in the growth and development of leaves were related by the developmental stage of the leaf at the time of drought. Leaf area and cell number were studied in leaves

development during different phases of their development. The results support the hypothesis and suggest that differential growth phenomena were due to differential assimilation which affects both cell division and cell expansion.

In Chapter IX, the first stage of a unified theory of leaf growth was constructed which incorporated the response of leaf growth to drought. Average leaf growth is dependent in large part upon cell expansion, an analogue of the cell wall relaxation equation (eq. 7.1) was proposed as a means to describe the cell expansion of cells within a leaf:

$$11/3(d\Delta p/dt) = \Delta P - T_0 \quad (7.1)$$

The terms in this equation, the leaf turgor potential (P) and the wall yield threshold (T) were measured under field conditions. After theoretical and experimental verification of the technique used to obtain and interpret the leaf wall yield threshold, data from three years of experimentation were presented. Leaf turgor potential decreased in droughted plants while the wall yield threshold increased in well, droughted leaves. The leaf wall yield threshold also was found to vary linearly as a function of normalized leaf area for both well watered and droughted leaves.

The remaining terms of the modified cell wall relaxation equation (eq. 7.1), the leaf relative growth rate ($1/3(d\Delta p/dt)/\Delta p$) and the leaf wall extensibility (ΔP) were measured in Chapter V. Relative growth rate was measured in the leaves of well-watered and droughted field-grown soybean plants. These data, when expressed as a function of normalized area, indicated that leaves which had completed 50% of

Leaf growth depends of a rate which was independent of the growth status and linearly related to their mass. The wall relaxation equation was then algebraically manipulated to solve explicitly for the wall extensibility

$$\epsilon = 11/8000/96 / (P - T) \quad (7.21)$$

Wall extensibility was determined from equation (7.21) and is as depicted in a plot (Fig. 7.23) in relation to differences upon normalized leaf area and leaf length during growth. Wall extensibility was essentially the same for disrupted and well-intervened leaves and was similar to values reported by Cosgrove (1981) and (1985). However, due to the range of values, it was not possible to determine if wall extensibility played any role in controlling growth responses during drought.

In Chapter VI, information derived from the wall relaxation equation (eq. 7.1) and from leaf water potential data presented in Chapter III, was synthesized into a leaf growth model. The model linked cell division and cell expansion events by means of an equation called the minimum volume division function (eq. 7.22)

$$DIV = 12\% + 40\epsilon \quad (7.22)$$

where ϵ is from (6). This equation required cells to attain a time dependent, minimum volume before they could divide. Therefore, cell division could be effectively regulated by wall expansion.

The leaf growth model numerically predicted leaf blade expansion as well as the increase in the number of cells in a leaf with time. The model was then used to assess the impact of various parameters of the wall relaxation equation and the minimum volume division function

in leaf growth. They do increase in turgor potential and capable of increasing leaf area. Simulations performed with the model successfully predicted the growth reduction noted in small leaves and related the reduction in final leaf area and cell numbers to the stage of leaf development at the time of drought.

Conclusions

Recently it was proposed (Hassler and Laflin, 1974) that the thermodynamic viewpoint has 'not led to any profound insights about physiological responses to water deficits'. Cell turgor potential has acquired a central role in both the division and expansion of cells in the model developed in this work. The role of turgor potential in the control of the leaf growth model has confirmed the importance of thermodynamically based concepts of the energy status of water in living systems. Turgor potential has been shown to be crucial to the physiological response of leaves to water deficits.

The second basic contribution of this work is that leaf growth is defoliated through description of the underlying processes (i.e., that the whole is not a sum of its parts). Through the success of the leaf growth model and the concepts therein, it has been possible to employ the processes of cell division and cell expansion to describe changes in the leaves and organs (leaves).

The third contribution is that once cell division is separated from associated processes which water concerned in division (protein and cellulose synthesis and membrane construction, etc), the division of cells per se is not particularly sensitive to drought since the

on the other hand, different functions (eqs. 3.1) applied for well-watered and droughted conditions.

On a more practical level, these characteristic growth responses to drought have been identified:

- 1) slight delay in the formation of leaves within the assimilation organs,
- 2) high sensitivity of leaf area formation in small leaves,
- 3) low sensitivity of final leaf area depends upon the stage of growth at the time of drought.

We conclude that we know about the mechanisms responsible for the acceleration of leaf formation as the variation upon the leaf growth habit only introduced changes that occurred once the leaf emerged. There is evidence that all leaves are formed within the first 20 days of growth (Loomis et al., 1981). This would allow effective avoidance of drought by forming these structures before competition for water with adjacent plants begins.

Both the initial and final characteristic growth responses are functions of the effect of drought on cell expansion and the assumption that cells expand before dividing. In small leaves, drought could reduce the expansion and division of cells more severely than in larger leaves since larger leaves have a lower proportion of DNA in a state of active cell division. The case for reductions of final leaf area evidence is the size at the time of drought follows from the temporal sequence of cell division and expansion in large and small leaves. During drought, young leaves suffer proportionally greater growth reduction than more mature leaves since the effective

control of cell expansion. The temperature of the stage of leaf growth may also be related to the volume of assimilate (photosynthetic cell expansion capacity) is reduced, brought about through the growth of larger leaves, but have effect of cell production because fewer cells are being produced. Upon increasing, there are almost as many cells to expand relative to the overall leaves.

Generalized concept

There are little in evidence of the role temperature plays in the division and expansion of cells. The nitrogen-volume division function (eq. 2.1), which was originally defined in terms of volume changes per unit time, may be more related to temperature than time. An analogy may be drawn with the common observation of elasticity in the production of leaves over time. This argument actually has been shown to consist of a response to a steady temperature environment (Growth at 20°C, 1971). The relationship between cell division and expansion clearly needs to be defined better in regard to temperature variations.

Similarly, a final goal of any individual would be to identify growth processes as described in this work, in photosynthesis and respiration. Photosynthesis is required to produce the volume needed to construct the cell membrane and to provide the energy for respiration. How these processes are tied in with leaf development is not clear.

The leaf growth model has been successfully incorporated with nitrogen in Gainesville, Florida. The incorporation of the model in the model will only now be possible tested in different environments and with different crops. Similarly, the production of leaf area increase by increasing the target potential should be examined, possibly with high frequency irrigation studies. There may be the need to model nitrogen from the effects of chemical composition leading to high in nutrient crop yields.

APPENDIX A
THEORETICAL AND EXPERIMENTAL VALIDATION OF WALL YIELD
THRESHOLD MEASUREMENT IN HUMAN PERIPHERAL PSYCHROMETER

The use of vapor pressure psychrometry to measure the wall yield threshold of plant tissues has been proposed only recently (Olesen et al., 1984). The measurement of wall yield threshold may depend upon the geometry of a psychrometer assembly, on its capacity to heat and water vapor transfer, as well as the physiological characteristics of the tissue under investigation. Therefore, observational estimation of heat and water vapor transport in the psychrometer assembly were measured and where possible, experiments were performed to validate these estimates. Physiological traits of aspen leaf tissue which may influence the measurement of wall yield threshold also were measured observationally and, where possible, experimentally evaluated.

Relevant measurement of yield threshold in a psychrometer should require: 1) a steady steady potential during wall relaxation to ensure that changes in the pressure potential are associated with relaxation of wall yield not stress, and 2) sufficient time to complete wall relaxation and associated thermal and vapor equilibration. Each of these requirements will be assessed as they pertain to either the physiological status of leaf tissue or the heat and vapor transport characteristics of a psychrometer assembly.

The general picture that both vascular properties and psychomotor activity equilibria vary rapidly with the water level lead to unstable thermal stability. Water vapor transport to the moving junction in the psychomotor chamber is dependent upon the leaf collector umbellature. Experimental and theoretical results indicate that water vapor requires approximately 1-2 h to equilibrate throughout a complete leaf tissue psychomotor system. Optimum leaf tissue displayed little physiological activity during equilibration which avoids interference with maintenance of the wilt yield threshold. Water potential is measurable in optimum leaf tissue within 2 h when being placed into a psychomotor assembly. The wilt yield threshold may be assessed after a 2 h equilibration period.

Water Potential

Theoretical Investigation

Estimation of stress in certain situations associated with transpiration-cooperation of substrate Given the respiration rate of young leaf tissue, it is possible to estimate the amount of stress in well stressed and then to determine if that amount of stress is an essentially significant proportion of the total.

Assume that a young, rapidly respiring leaf produces $25 \text{ mg CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$. Also assume:

$$1 \text{ mole CO}_2 = 44 \text{ mg CO}_2$$

$$1 \text{ mole tissue} = 1 \text{ mole CO}_2$$

$$1 \text{ mole tissue} = 0.5 \text{ g mole water}$$

$$\text{sample leaf area} = 0.75 \text{ m}^2$$

equilibration time = 4 h,

area 0.0010 m^2 surface of surface area measured per leaf sample per equilibration period

To calculate the corresponding drop in osmotic potential, the osmotically active volume of the leaf sample is estimated as follows:

Assume: leaf thickness = 0.005 cm ,

leaf area = 0.76 cm^2 ,

thickness of leaf = 20% ,

osmotically active water = 85% of total cell volume,

density of water = 1 g cm^{-3} ,

the osmotically active mass per leaf sample is calculated to be $5.96 \times 10^{-5} \text{ kg}$ of water. The osmolarity of sucrose that is equivalent to the value of osmotic pressure of osmotically active water

$$0.03 \text{ N } 10^{-5} \text{ water osmotic } / 5.96 \times 10^{-5} \text{ kg water}$$

of $0.005 \text{ mol osmotic}$. The corresponding change in water potential is then calculated with the van't Hoff relation to be -0.005 MPa .

This is the theoretical drop in the osmotic potential of leaf tissue equilibrating after 4 h in a psychrometer chamber held at 30°C . It was not necessary to consider changes in osmotic potential due to hydrolysis of starch since rapidly growing cells contain little if any starch granules.

Experimental technique

Materials and Methods: Actively growing leaf tissue from leaves recently emerged from the bud was sampled at 1600 h. Thirty six samples, each consisting of three leaf pieces of 8 cm diameter,

were placed in separate polypropylene beakers and immersed 1 cm in the water bath. Root were leaf samples were gathered, immediately placed into a tissue chamber, sealed and placed into a freezing field at -1 MPa. Freezing cooled the soil membrane to regions 40 hourly intervals, water potentials of the samples measured in the water bath were read with a dewpoint micrologger and recorded on a strip chart recorder. Root chambers were then taken from the water bath, and the chamber containing tissue were removed from the psychrometer, sealed with a tissue cover cap and then placed into a freezer. These procedures were repeated every hour until all samples had been measured for their initial water potentials, removed from the bath and placed into a freezer.

After the final tissue in the chamber had been in the freezer for 2 days, they were removed and allowed to sit on a constant until they equilibrated with ambient air temperatures. The sample chambers were then reattached to psychrometer assemblies and placed into a 20°C water bath for 4 h. Dewpoint and total water potentials were then obtained as described earlier.

Results and Discussion, The constant potentials of samples removed for 4 h consecutive hours were 1.46, 1.27, 1.20, 1.01, 0.99, 0.76 MPa. The total water potential measured at the end of the 4 h, 6 h and 8 h were expressed as the sum of the three hourly values of plant stress was 0.72 or 0.801 MPa.

The lack of statistically significant differences among the constant potentials of samples removed from the water bath at hourly intervals up to 4 h indicates that constant potential was stable

isothermal equilibration. The last three water potentials (Figure 10) indicated that this system was close to stable after 4 h of equilibration. Prior to that time, lower water potentials declined from a minimum value measured at 20 min.

It was concluded that the system presented an equally moving front tissue is not significantly changed during 4 h equilibration in a 20°C water bath. This supported evidence from the theoretical isotonic dialysis with isopentose sucrosephores of substances that the tissue potential was stable throughout equilibration.

III. TISSUE TEMPERATURE

The initial requirement of any psychrometer determination of water potential is the achievement of a specially uniform, time invariant temperature amongst all parts of the plant tissue, the psychrometer assembly (psychrometer plus sample chamber) and the air and water vapor contained within. Typically, the initial temperature of the plant tissue and psychrometer assembly are different than that of the water bath which is used as means to describe a uniform temperature. Therefore, as a first step toward determining a minimum time lag before water potential measurement, the dynamics of heat transport of the water bath, psychrometer chamber and plant tissue were examined.

A general model of heat transport was developed to study the problem of achieving temperature equilibration in a psychrometer system. Due to the complex geometry and heterogeneous nature of the psychrometer assembly and plant tissue, an analytical model was

utilized to describe thermal energy transport within each of the regions of the system. Each region is described by a thermal resistance and thermal capacitance. The product of the resistance and capacitance for each region yields that region's thermal time constant. Forced convection, natural convection and/or radiation coefficient values were used as appropriate across regions or at interfaces to calculate such resistances [10]. The capacitance term for each region is defined as the product of its mass and heat capacity. The four interfaces examined were between the: i) water tank and outer chamber walls, ii) outer chamber walls and the pyrolytic air space, iii) inner chamber walls and glass sleeve and iv) glass sleeve and the internal air space.

The Fourier consideration in the determination of heat transfer coefficient at the water-chamber wall interface is the magnitude of forced versus natural convection. The speed at which water flows over the chamber walls will be a large natural question which type of heat transfer predominates. General evaluation of the magnitude of these two effects can be calculated by a comparison of the Rayleigh (Ra) and Grashof (Gr) numbers in the following relations:

If $Ra^2 \gg Gr$ then forced convection predominates, otherwise

If $Gr \gg Ra^2$ then natural convection predominates (Karlekar and

Agarwal, 1977). For the water tank,

$$Ra^2 = (P/\mu)(\rho/\eta)^2 = 9.17 \times 10^8 \quad (14-11)$$

$$\text{and } Gr = C_0 \mu^{-1} \rho^{1/2} \eta^{1/2} = 6.47 \times 10^8 \quad (14-12)$$

where the value and definition for each term are given in Table A.1.

Since Ra^2 and Gr are of the same order of magnitude, free and forced

temperature within cell bulk reported in [10,11,12,13,14]. The variation of temperature with distance in the center of the $100\mu\text{m} \times 100\mu\text{m}$ substrate bulk is shown in this interface.

As mentioned earlier, a resistance and capacitance term are introduced at each interface. The resistance term (or thermal conductance) is inversely proportional to the heat transfer coefficient h in $\text{m}^2 \text{K}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$, where the area of the heat-transfer wall (surface cm^2) is given by [15]:

$$R_{\text{conv}} = h^{-1} A^{-1} \quad (16.21)$$

The heat transfer coefficient is a measure of the effectiveness of heat transport per unit area per unit degree and is a function of the thermal properties of fluid and the mass (surface) area through which heat transfer occurs. It is given by the formula:

$$h = \frac{Nu \cdot k_f}{L} \quad (16.22)$$

where Nu is the Nusselt number, k_f ($\text{W m}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$), is the thermal conductivity and L is the length (m) of the channel wall. For a rectangular cylinder:

$$Nu = 0.66 + 0.43 Pe^{1/4} \quad (16.23)$$

For laminar and turbulent, [17][18], where Pe is the Peclet number. The latter number is a dimensionless property which relates the difference of convection to the rate of diffusion of heat through a fluid. The Peclet number in this instance is 16.21, so that h , the heat transfer coefficient, becomes $461 \text{ W m}^{-2} \text{K}^{-1}$ and the resistance is 2.49×10^{-3} . The area of the heat transfer times the heat capacity and is equal to 25.15 J/K^{-1} . The time constant for transport of heat from

the vapor bulk in the porous chamber wall is equal to the saturation vapor pressure multiplied by the product of the heat capacity and chamber mass. This time constant is approximately 50 s.

The chamber wall wet interface represents a second boundary layer that is essential for heat transport. The chamber wall wet interface refers to contact between the porous chamber wall and the small volume of ice within the chamber; therefore, convective currents are inhibited by very low Schmidt levels within this small moist volume. Consequently, conduction will be the limiting process through this nearly stationary gas.

The resistance due to heat conduction within a vertical cylinder is given by Karlekar and Thomas (1977) as:

$$R_{\text{cond}} = \ln (R/D) / k_{\text{air}} k \quad (4.6)$$

which yields $R_{\text{cond}} = 0.0016 \text{ s } ^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$. The time constant (product of the above resistance and the heat capacity of the air) for heat transport through this interface is less than 1 s. Thus, the time constant is produced primarily by the low diffusion heat capacity of the air.

A third boundary is the chamber wall plant tissue interface. The psychrometer chamber wall makes contact with a portion of the plant tissue. Simplification of the geometry of the contact between the chamber walls and the plant tissue was required. For modeling purposes, it was assumed that the plant tissue was a discrete solid, having a thickness of 2 cm and positioned at the base of the psychrometer chamber. This geometry approximation was corroborated with leaves and other plant organs which are pushed to rest in the vertical diameter of the chamber. The thermal properties of plant

assumed that incoming solar radiation is equal to that of earth (6). In comparison, a plate of material thickness δ is assumed.

By analogy to the direct-convective heat-transfer in a psychrometric chamber, a convective equation (10) for heat transfer was used to estimate the resistance parameter and is given as:

$$R_{\text{conv}} = (h_{\text{conv}} \text{ m}^2 / \text{W}) / \text{Area} \quad (5)$$

(Karlsson and Jönsson, 1977), where the values for the thermal conductivity, k , and the area are given in Table 3.1. The resistance due to convective radiation is $1/1.5 \text{ W}^{-1}$ and the thermal capacitance based on the mass for water is $4.2 \text{ J}^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$. The product of the resistance due to convective diffusion and the thermal capacitance gives a time constant of 17 s. If the plant tissue is assumed to consist mostly of air, then $R_{\text{rad}} = 280 \text{ W}^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$, $C_{\text{air}} = 1.4 \text{ J}^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$, and the time constant is 4.48 s (10^{-2} s). Clearly the assumption that the plant tissue is composed of water yields the more conservative estimate of the heat transport rate.

A fourth boundary is the plant-tissue-air interface. Similar to the previous interface, the plant-tissue-air interface was modeled as a horizontal mass of air controlled by warmer plant tissue (as a pool of water). Equation (5.7) was used in calculating the resistance using the thermal properties of air and the parameters given in Table 3.1. The following intermediate values were obtained for $\delta = 0.1 \text{ m}$, $m = 0.141 \text{ kg}$ (m^3) = 0.277 (Karlsson and Jönsson, 1977) and $h = 8.5 \text{ W}^\circ\text{C}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-1}$. These values may be used in calculating the resistance along actual convective forms previously via eqn. (3-1) to yield $R_{\text{conv}} = 1.185 \text{ W}^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$. The resistance due to conduction through a horizontal

concentration of the water vapor inside the chamber $n_{\text{max}} = 1.4 \cdot 10^{19} \text{ cm}^{-3}$, the coefficient of μ is assumed to be the constant, $1.49 \cdot 10^{-17} \text{ g cm}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, denoting the time constant of ionization. The time constants of the ionization and electron ionization back transport at the plasma-water interface are 1.71 and 4.23 s, respectively.

Conclusions

The fast time is dominated by the interface having the longest time constant. The time constant of the water back chamber interface was approximately 20 s. If a time constant represents complete equilibration, then the psychrometer and plant chamber should be equilibrated within 4-7 min.

Ref. [Lengauer]: Water Control

Water transport on the water back psychrometer assembly system was studied by measuring temperature changes with a copper-constantan junction located within the body of the psychrometer. This permitted an approximate assessment of the time constant for back transport through the water back-chamber chamber wall interface since the location of the sensing junction was presumed to have been located several millimeters inward to the water chamber wall. Temperature changes were not measured at the other interfaces since the time constant of the water back-chamber chamber wall region dominated the transport of back throughout the system.

Materials and Methods

Twenty psychrometer chambers were filled with a single 4 cm diameter filter paper disc which had been soaked in distilled water. Initial chamber temperature was 20°C. The chamber was attached to psychrometers and instantaneously placed into a 30°C water bath at 1 hr intervals. Temperature in the psychrometers were continuously monitored in the temperature mode of a Victor low-point thermocycler and recorded by a strip chart recorder. Time constants for each psychrometer were computed from plots of temperature versus time

Results and Discussion

The time constant (τ , sec) for temperature equilibration between the water bath and the temperature measuring junction was 28 (± 4) s. This time constant is similar to the one obtained from the theoretical constant of heat transport through the water bath psychrometer-plug chamber system (26 s). This indicates that the psychrometer is capable of achieving rapid thermal equilibration necessary for water potential or soil plant threshold measurements.

Water Potential Theory

The basis of psychrometer measurements of water potential is the attainment of thermodynamic equilibration between the water located within the cells and the water in the column of air surrounding the psychrometer measurement junction. The time required for equilibration

the rate \dot{Q}_v of vapor flow is dependent upon the rate of mass transport through the liquid in the narrow capillary and the distance the vapor must then travel before reaching the saturating junction (Boyer and Langmuir, 1944). The latter transport process was described by Leach and van Wazer (1951), who employed a one-dimensional diffusion model of the following form:

$$\dot{Q}_v = 2 \pi \frac{D}{L} (p - p_0) \quad (8.2)$$

where D is the vapor pressure (Pa), L is time (s), x is distance (m) and D is the diffusion coefficient ($\text{cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$). The initial vapor potential at the surface of the crystal ψ' was assumed to be in equilibrium with the water within the crystal and, at the opposite end of the chamber the vapor flow \dot{Q}_v was set equal to zero for all time. The mathematical representation of these boundary conditions can be stated as:

$$\psi'_x(0, t) = 0 \quad (8.3)$$

$$\psi'_x(L, t) = 0 \quad (8.4)$$

where L is the length of the pyroelectric chamber. For a length of 8 cm and an initial vapor pressure equivalent to a relative humidity of 100, substantially saturated conditions were obtained at L within 20 s.

Model of Vapor Transport from Asymptotic Conditions

The initial point of departure of water vapor in the pyroelectric humidity does not occur at the surface of the crystal as had been implied by Leach and van Wazer (1951). Instead, water vapor must first diffuse through a barrier consisting of the crystal and specimen. Having now defined the barrier to diffusion at the surface

where ρ_{vapor} is the vapor density, ρ_{liquid} is the liquid density, ρ_{solid} is the boundary condition density, ρ_{vapor} is the boundary condition density, ρ_{liquid} is the boundary condition density, ρ_{solid} is the boundary condition density.

$$\rho_{\text{vapor}} = \rho_{\text{liquid}} \exp\left(\frac{h_{\text{vapor}}}{RT}\right) \quad (14)$$

where ρ_{vapor} is the vapor density, ρ_{liquid} is the liquid density, ρ_{solid} is the boundary condition density, ρ_{vapor} is the boundary condition density, ρ_{liquid} is the boundary condition density, ρ_{solid} is the boundary condition density. This latter value may not be constant if, as has been shown by Hansen and Gortan (1971), the mass of vapor is insufficient to saturate the walls of the psychrometer. This problem is generally avoided through the use of sufficiently sized tubes. Equation (14) with boundary conditions given by eqns. (13) and (15) was solved by Park (1963) with examples provided by Hansen and Gortan (1971). When R , the cylindrical resistance, ranged from 0.01 to 0.1 to 1.0000 m s⁻¹ (Gortan and Hansen, 1971), the equilibration period ranged from approximately 5 to 50 min.

WATER TRANSPORT THROUGH FILTER PAPER

The transport of water vapor from wetted filter paper shown in a vapor pressure psychrometer chamber was used to derive experimentally the time required for vapor equilibration. It was assumed that the filter paper offered little resistance to the movement of water vapor from the surface to the chamber atmosphere. Under these conditions, vapor transport should occur quickly according to calculations provided by Hansen and van Willeghem (1963). Rapid vapor equilibration in the psychrometer chamber would allow one to reach the

change in the total surface potential with time by the built-in potential of growing features.

Experiment and methods

An experiment was conducted to determine the time constant for vapor equilibration in a psychrometer chamber containing several filter paper discs. This study of the dynamic psychrometer chambers was placed over a 9 cm diameter filter paper disc which had been soaked in deionized water. The chambers were initially at 15°C, and the chamber relative humidity was assumed to be identical to that of the main room. Chambers containing filter paper discs were attached to vapor pressure psychrometers and immersed in a constant temperature (20°C) water bath. Water potentials, which reflected the degree of vapor saturation in the chambers, were recorded at least every 5 min. over a 6 h period for each psychrometer with a low-pass micrologger.

Results

Complete vapor equilibration was deemed to have occurred when output from each psychrometer was less than 0.1 cm. This point was attained in 37 \pm 14 minutes which indicates that without a barrier to diffusion, a considerably longer period of time was required to equilibrate the psychrometer chamber than was estimated by eqns. 3-6 and boundary conditions given by the equations 3-5 and 4-12.

TABLE 1
Thermodynamic properties, enthalpy, water and oxygen system reactions,
and the interaction species of the water bath (polybenzoxazine) glass
system

Property	Symbol	Value	Unit	Source, ref.
Heat capacity	C_p in $\text{J mol}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$	10.000 ± 10^{-3}	$\text{J mol}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$	61.00 ± 10^{-3}
Coef. thermal expansion, α in $^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$		1.70 ± 10^{-5}	$^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$	0.18 ± 10^{-3}
Diffusion viscosity, η in $\text{cm}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$		10.00 ± 10^{-6}	$\text{cm}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$	1.000 ± 10^{-6}
Thermal conductivity, k in $\text{W m}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$		0.01 ± 10^{-3}	$\text{W m}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$	0.00 ± 10^{-3}
Thermal diffusivity, D in $\text{cm}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$		0.00 ± 10^{-6}	$\text{cm}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$	0.00 ± 10^{-6}
Thermal expansion, β in K^{-1}		0.00 ± 10^{-3}	K^{-1}	0.00 ± 10^{-3}
Thermal conductivity, k in $\text{W m}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$		0.01 ± 10^{-3}	$\text{W m}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$	0.00 ± 10^{-3}
Thermal diffusivity, D in $\text{cm}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$		0.00 ± 10^{-6}	$\text{cm}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$	0.00 ± 10^{-6}
Rate, mol s^{-1}		0.00 ± 10^{-3}	mol s^{-1}	0.00 ± 10^{-3}
Velocity of water at bath in $\text{cm}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$		0.00 ± 10^{-3}	$\text{cm}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$	0.00 ± 10^{-3}
Concentration, c in mol^{-3}		0.00 ± 10^{-3}	mol^{-3}	0.00 ± 10^{-3}
Temp. diff. ΔT in $^\circ\text{C}$		0.00 ± 10^{-3}	$^\circ\text{C}$	0.00 ± 10^{-3}
Interaction species $\text{cm}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$				
Water bath/thermostat water			100	
Thermostat water/thermostat water			100	
Water glass system			100	
Flow lines thermostat water			100	

APPENDIX 1 THE LAMBERT-OSWALD LAW (1904) (CONT.)

```

10      DIMENSION P(201),M(1,201),R(201),C(201)
11
12      INPUT N, S, D, T
13      DIMENSION J(201)
14      DIMENSION P(201), J(201)
15      DIMENSION P(201),M(1,201)
16
17      OPEN(1, FILE='P(1).DAT', STATUS='NEW')
18      OPEN(11, FILE='M(1).DAT', STATUS='NEW')
19
20      C
21      C INITIALIZE VARIABLES
22      J(0)=1/2
23      DEL=1.0
24      ASSE=1.0E-04
25
26      G
27      C FILL ARRAY M(1) WITH INITIAL FORM OF CELLS
28      C
29      DO 100 I=1,1000
30      M(1)=0
31      IF (I .GT. 75 .AND. I .LE. 97) M(1)=4.0E+006
32      GO TO 100
33
34      C FILL ARRAY P(1) WITH READ VALUES FOR THE VOLUME
35      C PREPARE PLATE FILE
36      C
37      P(1)=0.0E+000
38      DO 100 I=1,1000
39      P(1)=P(1)+DEL
40      GO TO 100
41
42      C
43      C *****
44      C
45      C PREPARE FOR CALCULATION OF J, M(1)
46      C
47      DO 10000 I=1,100
48      C
49      C
50      C THE FOLLOWING NONCONSTANT EXPANSION WILL OCCUR
51      C
52      CALL SUBROUTINE(J,M)

```

```

10  SUBROUTINE CDECK DT, ADEL, GDEL, IL,
11
12  C THE FOLLOWING SUBROUTINE DIVIDES A CLASSIFIED NUMBER INTO
13  C OF CELLS
14
15  CALL DECLASSIFY(MOD)
16
17  C READ IN FROM WORK OF EACH CLASS BY READ(1,10)
18
19  C THE NUMBER OF CELLS IN EACH CLASS BY THE ABOVE FORMULA
20
21  C
22  DO 100 I=1,NCLASS
23    DO 100 J=1,10000
24      TOTVAL=I*MODVAL + MOD(L)
25    100 CONTINUE
26  C
27  100 TOTV=0,
28    DO 100 I=1,10000
29      TOTV=TOTV + MOD(I*MODVAL)
30    100 CONTINUE
31  C
32  MODVAL=MODV/100000
33
34  C
35  TOTV=TOTV/10 10
36
37  C ABOVE LINE CONVERTS CORIC NUMBER TO CORIC CONTINUOUS
38  C NEXT LINE ADDS ON HALF POINTS TO ACCOUNT FOR ALL BRACKETS
39  C NOW WE'VE GOT TIME AND ROUNDE INDEPENDENT (PER BRACKET)
40  TOTV=TOTV*1.1
41
42  C NEXT LINE CONVERTS NOW TO SPACE AREA
43  AREA=TOTV*100
44
45  WRITE(11,*) T,AREA,TOTVAL,MODVAL
46
47  C
48  WRITE(14,*) T,AREA,TOTVAL,MODVAL
49
50  10000 CONTINUE
51
52  STOP
53
54  C
55
56  C ***** THE FOLLOWING SUBROUTINE DIVIDES A CLASSIFIED NUMBER INTO CELLS *****
57
58  C
59  SUBROUTINE DECLASSIFY(MOD)
60  DIMENSION F(1000),VALS(1000),MODS(1000)
61  DIMENSION T(100),L(100)
62  DIMENSION TAREA(1000)
63  DIMENSION TAREA/1000000000
64
65  C MOD IS THE MODULUS OF THE NUMBER
66  MOD=10000
67
68  C
69
70  TOTV=1*10000 + 10000*MOD/1000000
71  T=1.07/10000*MODVAL + .1
72
73  DO 10000 I=1000,10000
74    MODVAL=I
75
76    IF (MOD VAL) GO TO 10000

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147 1 STARTING WITH THE LARGEST CELL, CONTRACT UNTIL
148 C CELL SIZE IS MINIMAL
149 DO 1000 I=1,NZ(1,1)
150 IF (I)GOTO 10 TO 1000
151 IF (I)GOTO 1000
152 IF (I)GOTO 1000
153 IF (I)GOTO 1000
154 C CALCULATE HALF VOL OF THIS CELL...STRETCHING WHICH YIELD
155 C SMALLER NEW SIZE
156 VNEW=VOLD/2.0
157 DO 100 J=1,1000
158 A=VNEW/2.0 + 1.0
159 C=VNEW/2.0 - 1.0
160 IF (I)GOTO 1000 A = .0001 VNEW (2.0, 1) TO 1000
161 C=0
162 WITHIN(1,2) T,VNEW(1)
163 GOTO 10
164 ENDOF
165 DO CONTINUE
166 C
167 C ADD THE CELLS FROM NEW(1) WHICH WILL BE MINIMAL TO
168 C NEW(2)
169 T1 = NEW(1)-NEW(2) + 1000000000
170 C CALCULATE A NEW FROM NEW SIZE RUN TO 1000
171 FROMFROM NEW(2)
172 NEW(1)=0
173 NEW=1000
174 ENDOF
175 C
176 C THIS PART IS USED WHEN FROM CURRENT RANGE ALL CELLS FROM
177 C NEW
178 DO 1000 VNEW=VOLD/2.0
179 DO 1000 J=1,1000
180 A=VNEW/2.0 + 1.0
181 C=VNEW/2.0 - 1.0
182 IF (I)GOTO 1000 A = .0001 VNEW (2.0, 1) TO 1000
183 C=0
184 WITHIN(1,2) T,VNEW(1)
185 GOTO 100
186 ENDOF
187 DO CONTINUE
188 C
189 NEW(1)=NEW(1) + CNEW(1,0)
190 NEW(1)=NEW(1) FROM
191 NEW=0
192 ENDOF
193 C NEW FROM 10 NEW NEW FROM
194 C
195 DO 1000 VNEW=VOLD/2.0
196 DO 1000 J=1,1000
197 A=VNEW/2.0 + 1.0
198 C=VNEW/2.0 - 1.0

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[illegible]

***** 3-17-68 10:00 10:00 10:00

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10      DIMENSION NCELL(1000),H(1000)
11      DIMENSION NCELL(1000)
12
13      C
14      C N111 IS THE NUMBER OF CELLS IN THE 1TH CLASS
15      C N112 IS THE VOLUME OF CELLS IN THE 1TH CLASS
16      C P111 IS THE FURROW FREQUENCY IN N111
17      C N = IS THE ITERATION LENGTH EQUAL TO 1 HOUR
18      C
19      C
20      C
21      C
22      C
23      C INITIALIZE VARIABLES
24      C P111 IS THE WALL DIFFUSIVITY
25      C INITIAL IS THE INITIAL INITIAL VOLUME CLASS
26      C DEL IS THE DIFFERENCE IN VOLUME BETWEEN EACH VOL CLASS
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83      DO=0
84      DO=0
85      DO=0
86      IF (N1, N2, N3) 1000
87      N1=N1+1
88      IF (N1) GO, 8000
89      IF (N1) GO, 8000
90      CONTINUE
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I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.



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